

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME XXX.

JANUARY, 1854.

NUMBER I.

CONTENTS OF NO. I., VOL. XXX.

ARTICLES.

ART.	PAGE.
I. JAPAN: WITH REFERENCE TO THE COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL RELATIONS OF THAT NATION WITH THE REST OF THE WORLD. By WILLIAM J. A. BRADFORD, Esq., of Massachusetts	10
II. COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.—No. iv. Raleigh's Charter and Expeditions—Amidos and Barlow, Grenville, etc.—Events to 1600—Review of Achievements within the United States up to 1600—Ditto in the rest of America—Causes of neglect of the United States—Grosnold's Voyage, Trade and Fishery at New England—Pring—Gilbert—De Monts—Weymouth—North and South Virginia Companies—Commercial Features of their Charters—Settlements—Trade, Fishery, etc.—Dutch Trading Stations at Hudson River—Tobacco—James's Regulations thereon—Virginia Slave Trade—Smith's Trading and Fishing Voyage to New England—Plymouth Council, etc. By ENOCH HALE, Jr., Esq., N. Y..	36
III. MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.—HON. JAMES GORE KING.....	61
IV. THE COTTON TRADE. By C. F. McCAY, Professor in the College of South Carolina.....	77

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

Insurance—Time Policies	83
-------------------------------	----

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW:

EMBRACING A FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC., ILLUSTRATED WITH TABLES, ETC., AS FOLLOWS:

Review of the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury—Increased Revenue of the Country—Statistics of the Commerce of the United States—Decline in Shipments of Specie—Balance and Profits of Foreign Commerce—Proposed Modifications of the Tariff—Increase of the Free List—Condition of the Money Markets in all sections of the Country—Availability of Railroad Bonds—Condition of the Banks—Financial Condition of European Markets—Stocks, and the Stock Market—Supply of Gold from California, and Deposits and Coinage at the Mint—Foreign Commerce of the Country to November 30th—Cash Duties at Boston, Philadelphia, and New York—Foreign Imports at New York for November, and since January 1st—Increase in the Warehousing Business—Imports of Foreign Dry Goods at New York for November, and since January 1st—Exports from New York for November and since January 1st, showing a very great increase from former years—Comparative Shipments of certain leading Articles of Produce up to December 16th—Increase in Exports of Breadstuffs—Crop, and prospective Shipments of Cereals at the South—Limited Receipts of Cotton, &c., &c.....86-94

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

	PAGE.
Condition of the Banks of Illinois.....	95
The Gold Fields of the World.....	96
The Bank of England.....	98
Rate of Interest and Penalty for Usury in the Various States.....	100
Revenues Collected at Ports in the United States.....	101
Financial Transactions of the Rothschilds.....	101
British Post-Office Returns.....	102
Mints to Bank Customers.....	102
Rates of Exchange at New Orleans.....	103

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

Progress of British and Colonial Ship Building.....	103
The American Provision Trade for the Season 1852-3.....	104
Rates of Freight to Liverpool and London.....	106
Commerce of Nova Scotia.....	107
Prices of Pork and Beef in New York.....	108
Ship Building in Maine.....	109
Coasting Trade of France.....	109
Commerce with Mexico.....	110
Lumber Trade of Georgia.....	111
Export Trade of Ports in England, Scotland, and Ireland.....	111
Commerce and Navigation on the Hudson River.....	112
Belfast (Ireland) as a Commercial Port.....	112
Imports of certain Articles into the United States.....	113

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

Postal Convention between the United States and Bremen.....	114
Brazilian Custom-House Formalities.....	115
Law Relating to the New Receipt Stamp in Great Britain.....	116
Important to Ship Owners.....	116
Concentrated Molasses—Question of Duties.....	117
Isle of Man Tariff.....	117
Change in the Weight of a Ton of Coal.....	117

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

Changes in the Lights on the Coast of Norway.....	119
Mediterranean Lights.....	119
Kattegat—Light on the Kobber Ground.....	120
Santo Domingo Light—West Indies.....	120

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

The Railways of the United States.....	121
--	-----

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

The English Census.—Colored population North and South.....	130
Population of British North American Colonies.....	131
School population of Cincinnati.....	131

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

Silver at the Copper Mines of Lake Superior.....	132
Re-opening of a Silver Mine in Pennsylvania.....	132
Quicksilver in California.....	133
Statistics of the Shoe Manufacture.—Mineral wealth of Egypt.....	134
Capital invested in Manufactures in the United States.....	134
Milk for manufacturers.....	135

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

Lay of the anxious debtor.—Frauds in woolen cloth.....	135
The man retired from business.—Frauds in trade.—Law to prevent bad debts.....	136
A commercial conscience.—The Paris Exhibition of 1855.....	137
Great Results from Small Beginnings.....	138
Shipnology.....	138
It's What You Spend.....	138
Proverbs for Business Men.....	138

THE BOOK TRADE.

Notices of 28 new books, or editions.....	139-144
---	---------

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JANUARY, 1854.

Art. I.—JAPAN: WITH REFERENCE TO THE COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL
RELATIONS OF THAT NATION WITH THE REST OF THE WORLD.

JAPAN—ITS HISTORY, POLITY, CUSTOMS—NATIONAL CHARACTER—NON-INTERCOURSE—UNITED STATES
EXPEDITION TO JAPAN, ETC., ETC.

THERE is a trait of civilized Europe more or less prevalent and prominent in all of its nations, with their varied national characteristics, and especially conspicuous in Englishmen—both of the John Bull and the Jonathan variety of that race—over whom its influence is stronger, and is more dominant, absolute, and arbitrary, such as to form a marked national feature. This trait is conformity. It is a feature of two aspects, having an inside and an outside view. It both requires conformity with an iron, inexorable rule, and it most strictly renders it back in return. But strong as is this spirit with us, it is so much more strong and prevalent with the Japanese, as to form a burlesque on our practice of it. In *our* case, it is enforced by fashion and public opinion; in *Japan*, while it has these supporters, it is also fortified by morals, law, and authority. If it is not more rigorous among them, it is more minute; and if not more exacting, it is more exact and precise.

This is the basis of the standard by which we form our opinions of the Japanese, and of all other people, as well as of individuals in our own community. In what they conform to our own practices, ideas, and notions, they have our respect: wherein they differ from us, our derision, contempt, or disapprobation. This is not only true in regard to very broad and marked differences in customs, manners, language, or dress, but to the slightest shades of variation. Not only such as are in strong contrast, but those which are so nearly alike as to be distinguished only by eyes assisted by an artificial and highly refined medium of perspective. Shades of difference less than those of the most kindred tints, are sufficient to give birth to quip or jeer, or piquant jest. If the variance be less marked than that of crim-

son and purple, or sky-blue and mer-seine, those of one class, even among our own townsmen, or in a select circle gathered at an evening party, will afford subject for this kind of amiable entertainment to another class assembled in the same room for social diversions.

Such being the rigid and inexorable standard of conformity among us, it will, of course, be the case that those who in certain things are the directly opposite of ourselves, must, however civilized they may be, afford much for our criticism, and something for our ridicule. It will by no means follow that those at whom the laugh is directed may not have juster notions and more reasonable customs than those who laugh at them. The Japanese are a people of a high order of civilization; perhaps in this not inferior to any nation of Europe or of our continent; little, if any, behind them in the arts; more inferior in the sciences; superior in morals and in the noble qualities of the human nature; equal, at least, in general education and breeding; superior in delicacy of feeling, in fidelity, in honor; in intellect, the European being judge, slightly inferior. It is a feather sufficient for the Japanese, or any other people, that differing from nations of conformists, like the European, so much as they do, they yet have enough interesting and valuable to attract their most earnest, fixed, and inquisitive attention, and to secure, in large measure, their respect.

It is well known to all readers that a great effort is now put forth by the government of the United States to open an intercourse with Japan, for the purpose of securing a trade with that nation. To judge of the benefit or advantages of such an enterprise, we must have some idea of the commodities of such trade and of its extent; and to form an opinion of its chances of success, it will be necessary to know something of the Japanese polity, customs, and national character and laws. It is proposed in these pages to present a few observations on these matters. Previously, however, to doing this, we shall take a cursory glance at the geography and history of the country, which will be further auxiliary to the main object, which is to examine particularly the character and bearings of their non-intercourse system which they have established toward other nations, and the efforts which have been made to remove it.

The matters herein stated have been drawn from Charlevoix *Histoire de Japon*; from a volume printed in London entitled "*Manners and Customs of the Japanese in the Nineteenth Century*, from the Accounts of recent Dutch Visitors of Japan, and the German work of Dr. Ph. Fr. Von Siebold. London: John Murray. 1841." Which volume is made up of extracts from the physicians and other officers of the Dutch Factory in Japan, Kaempfer, Thunberg, Titsingh, Doeff, Fischer, Siebold, and Meylan—eyewitnesses of what they relate, and Siebold and Titsingh, having transcribed some occurrences of earlier times from the Japanese annals; also, from a more recent work from the English press, by Charles McFarlane, Esq., entitled "*Japan: an Account, Geographical and Historical*," &c., published in 1852; and from a French work on Japan, by M. A. D. B. De Jancigny, from the press of Firmin Didot, freres, Paris, 1850; from the narrative of Don Rodrigo de Vivero y Velasco, as published in the *Asiatic Journal* for July, 1830; and assisted by reference to Malte Brun's *Geography*. The character of these authors and the sources of their information are sufficient vouchers that the facts stated by them are correct, as nearly as, under the circumstances, any accounts of this country can be.

Japan consists of a great number of islands, said by Charlevoix to be in-

finite. McFarlane says the number is unknown. In some accounts it is said to be 3,850; others make a larger number.

The principal island is called Nippon, or Nipon, and by the Chinese, Zipon-gu. The name, it seems to be agreed, means origin or foundation of the sun—probably origin is the correct signification. The Japanese supposed their country to be the extreme orient—that there was no country to the east of them, and it would seem that they meant to express this idea in the name which they gave it, and which means origin or rising of the sun. Charlevoix says, *ni* means fire, and also the sun, and *pon*, base or foundation; because they supposed there was no country to the east of them. It means, therefore, in fact, the same as Orient or Levant. This island is said by Brooke to be 600 miles in length, and from 100 to 150 in breadth. Malte Brun gives the length at 300 French leagues, which would be a little over 800 miles. This last author states the extent of the whole Japanese Archipelago, from Loo Choo to the Kuriles, at 1,600 miles. The two principal islands next to Nippon are Kiusiu and Sikokf, or Sikok.* The former is stated by this author to be 220 miles long, and 130 broad: and the latter to be 100 miles by 50. The whole area of the empire he computes at about 130,000 square miles. The population is not known, but is variously stated at from 15 to 50 millions. The Japanese government have very exact returns of the population, but will not suffer it to be known to others, as will be afterwards stated.

This country forms one of the great curiosities of the world. It possesses a population equal in civilization and refinement to that of any other country, with a high state of advancement in the arts and in literature. The customs of the people and the ideas of government are, however, widely different from those of other civilized nations, and constitute the country an object of inquisitive curiosity. And this is increased by that peculiarity of policy which has made it a sealed country, and shut it up from the knowledge or intercourse of other people. The caution of the government always placed much restriction on foreign intercourse; and for a little more than two centuries this has been totally and most jealously interdicted, with two exceptions, which will be named.

These islands are probably of volcanic origin. They are full of mountains, and the coasts are, for the most part, steep, rocky cliffs. The Mountain Foosi is so high as to be covered with snow through the year. Some of them now contain active volcanoes, or those which have been in action in late years. An island near Firando is entirely volcanic; and there are others of the same kind. The Foosi, or Footsi, just named, is an extinct volcano. It is in the Island Nippon, not far from Jeddo, and its height is said to be 12,000 French feet. There are many large islands which, though not reckoned as parts of Japan proper, yet are dependencies of the empire. The Island Yesso, or Matsamai, is said by Mr. McFarlane to be 250 miles long by 100 broad, average width. The island or peninsula of Saghalien, called by the Japanese, Oku Jesso, Kita Jesso, and sometimes Kara'to, Karafonto, or Krafto, is of great extent, near to, if not adjoining, the continent. Two of the most southerly of the Kurile Islands, Kuna-shir, (properly Kuna, the word *siri* meaning coast,) and Ootooroo, are occupied by the Japanese. The writer just named estimates the whole extent of the empire at 160,000 square miles.

* In the Japanese language, an aspirate is sometimes used in the middle or at the end of a word instead of the letter *f*, and has the same sound.

Marco Polo, the Venetian, first made this country known to Europeans under the name of Zipan-gu, its Chinese name,* in the latter part of the thirteenth century. He was in China in the service of the emperor Kublai, where he collected his information of Japan. It was represented that the inhabitants were of middling size, well made, and of fair complexions, and of civilized manners. They have gold in the greatest abundance, it being inexhaustible. The entire roof of the king's palace is covered with gold, in the same manner as houses elsewhere are covered with lead. The ceilings of the halls are of the same metal. Many of the apartments have small tables of pure gold, considerably thick, and the windows also have golden ornaments.

The myth of the nation supposes, that from primeval chaos arose a self-created supreme God, throned in the highest heaven, and too great to have his tranquillity disturbed by any cares whatever. After him arose two Creator Gods, who fashioned the universe out of chaos, but left the earth unformed. The universe was then governed for myriads of years by seven successive deities. The last of these married, called into existence the earth, which consisted of Kuisiu and seven smaller islands, constituting what was then Japan, and committed the government to his favorite and best daughter, called Tensio-dai-sin, the sun-goddess. She reigned only the brief space of 250,000 years, instead of myriads of years which her predecessors had reigned, and was followed by four demi-gods, whose rule continued a little over 2,000,000 years. The last of these four demi-gods married a mortal wife, and Zin-mu-ten-wu, the first mihado of the mortal dynasty, and of the historical era, was the offspring of this union, about 660 years before Christ. The sun-goddess is the only object of worship; and she is too great to be approached, except through the mediation of the kami, who seem to answer to our angels and saints, being composed of two orders—the superior numbering 492, being born gods or spirits, and the inferior amounting to 2,640, being canonized men. These are supposed to pay the mihado, as the descendant of the sun-goddess, an annual visit.

There are some traditions also of an early settlement of this country by Chinese colonists. One is, that a rebellion having occurred in China, the emperor sent many of the guilty into banishment in the islands of Japan. Another is, that the emperor Xica, who came to the throne of China in the year 209 before Christ, wished to find a medicine to make man immortal, and that one of his physicians told him that he knew certainly of a plant having this virtue in the islands of Japan; that it was a plant so delicate, that unless gathered by pure hands and with much caution, it would lose all its efficacy before arriving in China. He accordingly proposed that 300 young men and as many young women—other stories say 3,000—should be sent there for the purpose, and he offered himself to lead them. The proposal was approved; the physician embarked with his colony, and they remained in Japan—the object of the physician having been to escape from the tyranny of the emperor.

This fact is spoken of in the Japanese annals. They mark the spot where the colony landed, and show there the ruins of a temple which was built in honor of the event. It is said to have occurred 453 years after the foundation of the monarchy by Zin-mu.

* By the Chinese, Nippon was called Jépan, or Zipan, with the additions kwo, koo, or goo, meaning kingdom.

Charlevoix, in his history of Japan, says—in alluding to the stories and conjectures of the origin of this people—that the people of Japan appear to be a *mixed* race, having different origin, but more Tartar than Chinese. The annals of *China* say, that in 1196 before Christ, the Tartars began to people the isles of the eastern sea. And in fact, beside the great similarity of manners between the Tartars and Japanese, there is so great a relation between the warlike genius and the fortitude of the two nations, that a Japanese may be well defined a Tartar polished and civilized. The difference in *language* shows that the Japanese did not originate from China. The dissimilarity in the language is great; and this is pretty conclusive as to difference of origin. The Chinese have no alphabet; their signs stand for words. The Japanese have letters. The Chinese language is monosyllabic; the Japanese have words of many syllables. The Chinese have no sound answering to P, B, D, R, in their words; the Japanese speak these sounds well. The Japanese cannot pronounce H; the Chinese sound this letter.

These diversities in language are alone sufficient to show a difference of origin. But striking diversities of character are also shown by Charlevoix. He says the Chinese regulate all their actions by *prudence*; with the Japanese *honor* is the principle on which everything proceeds. The Chinese are circumspect, timid, modest, peaceable, of an exactness most scrupulous: they glory in their selfishness. Cheating, usury, theft, and deception are not degrading to the Chinese. The Japanese, on the contrary, is frank, sincere, a good friend, faithful to a prodigy, obliging, generous, little regardful of money, which makes them despise trade. Their character is particularly marked by the strict observance of the point of honor. This is equally lively, says the French historian just named, among all classes of people. A man of the lowest rank will be offended by a word spoken carelessly to him by a lord, and not measured with the courteous care which their ideas of respect require, and he considers himself entitled to show his resentment; whence it comes, that every one is on his guard, and that all are equally respected. This, though to us it appears to show nothing to be noticed, yet in a country where the government is despotic, the difference in rank particularly marked, and where the respect paid to the higher dignitaries amounts to obsequiousness, is a strong evidence of their sensitiveness in this point.

Poverty is neither criminal nor disgraceful in Japan; on the contrary, the four higher classes are all without property exceeding their annual expenditure. Only the traders, who from their business are held in contempt, are rich. There is among them, he says, a greatness of soul, a strength of mind, a nobleness of thought, a love of country, a contempt of life, a certain boldness, which is marked on his countenance, and which excites him to undertake everything. There is no age, sex, or condition which does not furnish instances of it.

The scrupulousness of fidelity and honor is especially strong in the women. Several stories are related in proof of this. One of them is that a gentleman of the province of Fing had a wife of rare beauty, by whom he alone was loved. The emperor knew it, and took his life. Some days after his death the emperor caused his widow to come before him, and would have compelled her to remain in his palace. She resorted to artifice; and answered that his majesty did her an honor of which she was sensible, but she asked of him the favor that she might be allowed to mourn for her husband

during thirty days, and that she might then regale her parents at the palace. This was accorded, and the emperor added that he would be at the festival. He was in fact present. When she left the table at the end of the feast, the woman approached the balcony, and threw herself to the ground from a great height, and killed herself, to satisfy her fidelity which she had sworn to her husband, and to insure her honor.

The rights of friendship are no less sacred than those of conjugal love. There is no extremity of danger to which a man will not expose himself to serve or defend his friend. They are haughty, vindictive to excess, and notwithstanding their severity of character, are extremely dissolute. They are more easy to be reclaimed than the Chinese, more virtuous in sentiment, naturally religious, and more docile, because they follow reason. A Japanese loves truth, if he finds his condemnation in it.

In these traits of character the Japanese differ widely from the Chinese; sufficiently so to furnish a strong presumption of different origin.

The government established by the conqueror Zinmu seems to have extended over the large island of Nippon only, for it is said to be recorded in the annals, that Kiusiu remained independent of the Mihado till the close of the second century of our era.* Syn-mu, or Zin-mu, established over this island a government theocratical, in character of representative of the gods, and despotical, in character of emperor. He civilized the Japanese, introduced chronology, dividing the time into years and months, and reformed the laws and government.

The Mihado having died near the close of the second century, leaving unfinished the war that had then lasted through several reigns, having been commenced for the conquest of Kiusiu, his widow carried on the war to a close, in which she completed the subjugation of that island, and afterward of Corea. She is called, by some writers, Singon-hwo-gon, by others, Singuhogu; kwogou or kogu being her title. She commanded in person the army in the conquest of Corea. She is represented as an Amazon, and was deified. At the close of the sixth century was another female Mihado, and at short intervals several others. The annals relate that at the close of the eighth century, a foreign people "who were not Chinese, but natives of some more distant country," made a hostile invasion of Japan. They were frequently defeated, but their losses were constantly made up by new recruits who came by sea. The war was continued eighteen years before the invaders gave up the contest. These foreigners are supposed to have been Malays, but the grounds for the conjecture are not given. The great distance of the Malays is against such a supposition, being over two thousand miles. The opinion that they came from Kamtschatka or Siberia would seem more reasonable.

The practice of abdication having become common with the mihados or emperors, it frequently happened that the reigning mihado was a minor, which gave occasion to the creation of a new officer, who is regent and military commandant, under the name of ziogoon. As the throne came more frequently into the hands of an infant, the power of the regent became more lasting, and finally the office permanent.

The two offices of regent and military commandant seem to have been at

* These seems a little contradiction or confusion here. It is not apparent how, if Kiusiu was created first, and the myth above related refers the reign of the gods to that part of the Empire, their descendant, the Mihado, should be the ruler only of Nippon, and be the conqueror of Kiusiu, unless that island had revolted—which indeed might be the case.

first distinct, and to have united in the person of Yoritomo. A mihado, who had married the daughter of a powerful prince, abdicated in favor of his son, only three years old. The grandfather of the infant assumed the regency, and placed the late sovereign in confinement. A civil war ensued in which Yoritomo came forward as the champion of the imprisoned ex-mihado. He triumphed, released the ex-mihado, and placed the regency in his hands. He held it, however, only nominally, leaving the real power in the hands of Yoritomo, whom he created *ziogoon*. He virtually governed for twenty years. His power acquired stability, and his office became hereditary. After his death his widow, who had become a nun, left her convent to govern for her son, the infant *ziogoon*, and thus a woman came to the office of *generalissimo*, as well as mihado. She is called the *ama ziogoon*, meaning the nun general.

The Great Kublai, the khan of the Mongols, who had conquered Corea and China, contemplated the conquest of Japan, in the 13th century. Kublai sent a message to the emperor of Nippon, to the effect that he was determined to make all the world one family. The emperor, however, was equally determined that he would not participate in the honor of this family relation. He refused to admit the ministers to an audience, and sent them back to Great Kublai, without an answer. Two other embassies were successively dispatched, at short intervals, and treated in precisely the same manner. Great Kublai now tried the last argument. He sent a fleet and army which appeared off the coast of Japan. The army having landed on a small island, the fleet was dispersed by a storm, leaving 30,000 of the number ashore. The end of the story is whimsical. A large force came over from Nippon to capture them. They concealed themselves from view, and when the Japanese were moving on in pursuit of them, they made the circuit of the coast, and coming to the boats in which the Japanese had been brought over, got into them and left the island free to their pursuers. Other accounts of this expedition state that the Mongols were defeated in battle.

The next year the khan sent other envoys. They were admitted by the *ziogoon* to an audience, and the answer sent by them to their master was : "Henceforth no Mongol shall set foot on the soil of Nippon on pain of death." The khan, however, sent another deputation, and the emperor took off the head of every one of them. Other accounts relate that two successive embassies were served in this manner. Again a great expedition was fitted out by Great Kublai to enforce his family plan. The Japanese were ready to give them a reception suited to their benignant purpose. But the fleet was this time utterly destroyed by a tempest, and every man perished. The lowest account makes the number 100,000.

Hide-Yosi, in the latter part of the sixteenth century, having obtained the office of *ziogoon*, which he held under the new name of Tayho, made it one of increased power, by dividing the administration into lay and ecclesiastical departments, and thus rendering the authority of the *ziogoon* little inferior to that of the mihado. He made the severe code of law under which the empire is still governed.

Marco Polo, the Venetian, was in the service of Kublai after he had conquered China, in the latter part of the thirteenth century. He appears to be the first European who had any knowledge of Japan, and he gathered his information in China, without having visited the country. The first visit of Europeans was in 1543, nearly three centuries after Marco Polo was in

China. Two Portuguese vessels in this year entered a harbor of Tanega, one of the small islands ; and by the mariners who came in them, the Japanese were first made acquainted with the use of fire arms. It is said that the Japanese had then an extended Commerce, which they carried on with sixteen different countries. They treated the Portuguese very hospitably, traded freely with them, and some who settled in the country married Japanese women. An intercourse was at once opened with the Portuguese, and many missionaries of the Catholic Church, of the order of Jesuits, went over to Japan, resided there, and made many converts to the Christian religion.

From this reception of the Portuguese and the sequel, it appears that the Japanese are naturally disposed to hospitality and to bestow on strangers a generous confidence, and also to toleration in religious matters ; but when this is not suitably requited, they exercise a corresponding severity. The *ziogoon*, Tayho, mentioned above, died in 1598, soon after the coming of the missionaries, leaving a son only six years old heir to the *ziogoon*-ship. Iyeyas, to whose granddaughter Tayho had caused his son to be married, in order to insure the support of that prince, one of the most powerful in the empire, made war upon the infant and defeated him, obtaining for himself the *ziogoon*-ship, which has ever since remained in the hands of his descendants. In this war the missionaries and their new converts, imprudently and unfortunately, took part, and gave their aid to the infant. The consequence of this interference in politics was the expulsion, not only of the Jesuits, but of their countrymen and of all other Europeans from the country, except only the Dutch, who are allowed an intercourse restricted to two ships in a year, and confined to a single port ; and the new converts to the Christian faith were all massacred.*

The Japanese knew no distinction of people or nations among Europeans, but all were included in one class under the name *nan-ban*, which is said to mean southern barbarians. The Dutch, who were known to them only as being from the Dutch possessions in India, were, from that circumstance, considered a different people ; and being Lutherans and opposed to the offending Jesuits, were allowed intercourse under the above rigorous restriction. This exclusion began about 1640, and has continued now over two centuries. Under this non-intercourse law, no foreign vessel is allowed to enter any port except Nagasaki, in the south-western part of Kiusiu. She can come there only for water or refreshments, and if she has guns or ammunition, they are immediately to be taken ashore and kept till the ship is ready to depart. A Portuguese embassy sent to remonstrate against this exclusive policy were beheaded, two of the number only being saved to report the fact to their government. The Dutch factory is confined to a small island, of artificial origin, called *Dezima*, or *De*, the word *zima* meaning island. It is only 600 feet long by 240 broad, or between three and four acres. They are not allowed to buy or sell, but a commissioner is appointed by the government, who disposes of their goods and makes their purchases for them.

The *mihado* is nominally supreme ruler. But his dignity is so great that

* Some writers think it their duty to cover the Christians from all blame in this matter, and to speak of it as an ungrounded persecution. But Charlevoix, himself a Jesuit, and writing nearly contemporaneously, concedes that they took sides in the contest ; and Siebold, who was a learned and accurate man, and made an examination personally of the Japanese annals, calls it "*the unsuccessful insurrection of the Christians.*"

he cannot trouble himself with the affairs of government. Bestowing a thought upon them would both profane his divine nature and degrade his transcendent dignity. No act of sovereignty is performed by him, therefore, unless it has a religious relation. He canonizes great and holy men after death, but the *ziogoon* has the care of selecting those who are worthy of the honor. He confers the higher offices of his court, which, from their dignity or sacred character are objects of ambition, upon the princes. He determines the days on which certain religious festivals are to be observed ; and formerly he daily sat some hours upon the throne immovable, lest by an inclination of the body or a turn of the head, he might bring destruction upon that part of the kingdom toward which the motion should be. This last extraordinary function is now better performed by his crown, which he places upon the throne instead of his great and sacred person, and which has maintained the stability of the realm, no doubt, equally as well as if the *mihado* had sat there in person. This was a very remarkable innovation for that empire, but the practice has now continued so long that it may be confidently believed to be, like most other dreaded reforms, unattended with danger.

All the ordinary duties of government are performed by the *ziogoon*. Nothing is used by the *mihado* a second time. All household furniture and utensils are regularly renewed after once used. No article of dress is worn a second time. All are destroyed. If any other person should use them, after they have been sanctified by being used by him, it would be sacrilege, and would call down the vengeance of Heaven on the offender. The *mihado* never goes abroad nor leaves the precincts of the palace, because it would not do that unhallowed eyes should pollute him with a gaze. His divinity is so exalted that all the gods are held annually to wait upon him, and pass a month at his court. These extravagant ideas of the *mihado* may well give rise to a doubt whether there is in fact such a person. The latter part is evidently fabulous, and some parts of the arrangement may create a suspicion that the whole idea of the *mihado* is imaginary, and designed as a deception. The *ziogoon* is obliged to defray all the expenses of the support of this august god-monarch : of course his revenues must be made to correspond to so heavy a charge ; and if it can be believed that nothing can be used twice by the *mihado*, nor by any person after them, the *ziogoon* must be allowed an immense revenue. So again, if he can have it believed that his authority is derived from so sacred a source as this august demi-god, great strength is given to his rule. It is said, however, that he shows himself drawn in a carriage, in a certain pageant which occurs once in a series of years. But this is at utter variance with the idea that unhallowed eyes must not pollute him with a gaze. There are other assertions in relation to this mysterious demi-god equally inconsistent. Nor would this pretended exhibition be inconsistent with the idea that the *mihado* is a fiction, as it would be an easy matter for the *ziogoon* to obtain some person to play the part of demi-god *mihado*, once in five or six years. It is said that he is allowed twelve lawful wives, in order that the succession to the throne may be insured. But if these wives are not imaginary beings like himself, there is no difficulty in supposing that the proper arrangements for their comfort and protection may be made by some of the high officers who manage the other parts of the play.

The Japanese are described as short and not well built. So say some writers. Others represent the personal appearance as good, and they gen-

erally agree in describing the women as very handsome, and of an agreeable look.

Malte Brun says the Japanese are well formed, free and easy in their movement, of a hardy constitution, and of middling stature. Their yellowish complexion sometimes inclines to brown, and sometimes passes into a pale white. The women of distinction, seldom exposing themselves to the air without a veil, preserve complexions equally fair with those of our European ladies. It is by a peculiarity in the eyes that the Japanese are chiefly distinguished. They are farther from a round shape than in any other people. Oblong, small, and sunk, they appear as constantly winking. Their eyelids form a deeper furrow, and their eyebrows are placed a little higher, than we generally find them in other people. They have, for the most part, large heads, short necks, broad, snubby noses, and the hair black, thick, and glossy. This description of Malte Brun seems to be carefully drawn from the statements of those who have visited the country. Recent writers—Siebold, who visited the country, and others following him—give the same representation. Mr. McFarlane says they are not so strong as Europeans, but they are well made and have stout limbs. In some parts even the common people, if dressed in our costume, might pass for Portuguese or southern Italians. Many of the upper classes are tall, exceeding handsome in figure and countenance, and are far more like Europeans than Asiatics. Several writers praise the beauty of the women. Some of them very highly extol it. One says their women are the handsomest of Asia.

Children are trained to habits of implicit obedience, and are early inducted into the discipline and rudimentary education of the schools. It is said that every day-laborer in Japan acquires at school the knowledge of reading and writing, and of the history of his country. This instruction, discipline, and habit of obedience, early fixed, are sufficient evidence of a high state of civilization and of public morals, virtue, and good order. The children of the higher orders are instructed in morals and the whole of good manners, including minute forms of etiquette, and in arithmetic. It is said by one writer* that the boys are also taught the proper mode of performing the *hara-kiri*, which is the act of self destruction by ripping up the abdomen, an act that the Japanese gentleman is often bound to resort to, and which is attended with ceremonies differing according to circumstances.

In the more advanced schools, the girls are taught plain and ornamental needlework, and the management of household affairs.

Marriage with one of inferior rank is held to be utterly disgraceful. When a youth has fixed his affections upon a maiden of suitable condition, he makes a declaration of his passion by attaching a branch of a certain shrub, the *calastrus alatus*, to the house where she lives. If this is neglected he is rejected; if it is accepted, so is he; and if the lady wishes to express a reciprocal tenderness she blackens her teeth. After the wedding her eyebrows are plucked out. The marriage rite consists in prayers and benedictions by the priest, and a kindling of bridal torches, the bride lighting hers at the altar, and the bridegroom taking his fire from her torch. They go to the bridegroom's house, two of the youthful playmates of the bride accompanying her, where, in the post of honor, sits the bridegroom, surrounded by his nearest relations, and upon a table in the apartment are miniature representations of a fir-tree, a plum-tree in blossom, a crane, and

* Ogilby.

a tortoise, emblems of man's strength, of woman's beauty, of happiness, and of a long life. They spend the evening in drinking sakee, a wine made from rice, accompanied with numerous and minute formalities, in which the bridemaids, who are called butterflies, act a conspicuous part.

The Japanese have a great deal of ceremony and etiquette attending their intercourse. If two gentlemen meet in the street, they must bow low to each other, remain for some minutes in this attitude, and on parting make a similar bow, from which they must not straighten themselves, so long as by looking back they can see each other. The Japanese do not use chairs, but sit upon mats on the floor. In a morning call, the visitor and visited first sit down, on their heels, facing each other; then, placing their hands on the floor, they simultaneously bow their heads as close as possible to their knees. Next follow certain compliments, answered on either side by a muttered "he, he, he;" then pipes and tea are brought in; and it is not until all this has been duly performed, that anything in the nature of conversation may be attempted. The ceremony concludes by offering confectionery, or other dainties, on a sheet of white paper, to be eaten with chopsticks. What he does not eat, the visitor carefully folds in the paper and puts into his pocket. This practice of carrying away what is not eaten, is an invariable rule of good breeding, and at great dinners the guests are expected to be attended by servants bringing baskets to carry away the remnants of the feast. Their table-services are very costly, and the rooms are prepared and decorated with extreme care. They are very sociable, notwithstanding their punctilious observance of etiquette, and the ladies take much delight in their decorated apartments, at which they entertain themselves with conversation, music, and dancing, and with various games, some of the ladies also occupying themselves with ornamental work.

Mr. Fischer's description of the ladies of Japan, and of their evening amusements, seem to place his reader in a very choice party of our own fair country women. "The station of the female in Japan," he says "is that which is allotted her in Europe. She presides at the feast, and adorns the social meeting. The samsie, or guitar, is even more invariably a part of female education than the piano in England. Its touch is the signal for laying aside ceremony and constraint, and tea, sahki,* and good fellowship become the order of the evening."

"In the great world," he says "the young ladies find delight at their social meetings in every description of fine work, the fabrication of pretty boxes, artificial flowers, birds, and other animals, pocket books, purses, plaiting thread for the head dress, all for the favorite use of giving as presents. Such employments are in use," he says "to while away the long winter evenings."

But in a Japanese summer we find a gayer scene. It is now that the beauties of nature, and the splendor and decorations of art, unite with youthful buoyancy and female spirit and mirth to spread over their diversions a greater variety of embellishment and delight, than is to be found among any of the like scenes in European civilization. It is a midsummer night. The air is pure and bland as that of Italy, and the bright moon is traversing a clear blue firmament, than which Italian vesper has nothing brighter or clearer of moon or sky. The salient points of the volcano-born mountains are radiant with the beaming light, and seem to glow with increased brightness as the eye rests on the shadows of the intervening recesses, and

* This word is variously spelt by different writers, sakee, sahi, sakki, etc.

glances from light to shade, from shade to light. The surface of the placid glassy lake at the bottom of the dell is varied too by the shadows cast upon its waters from the cliffs, while it is illuminated within its rocky nooks, and rounded bays, and broad expanse, by a hundred lamps, gleaming and glittering from the highly-colored paper lanterns, mounted upon as many beautifully embellished and costly pleasure boats, which, moving about the lake, throw forth the sound of music and the soft melody of female voices in song and laugh, that, repeated and cast back by the echoes of the cliffs, seem to give a new sweetness to the balmy air. Such is a summer evening in Japan. Such is the winter society and summer diversion of the ladies in these islands. Though we consider them an unsocial nation because they have shut themselves up from the communion of other nations, there appears nothing of this in their manners, but the reverse. In the enjoyments of society and music they glide about the lakes, (a common feature in garden scenery,) in these little vessels from noon till late at night, and by turns amuse themselves with various games. In one of these, mentioned by Mr. Fischer, a floating figure is placed in a vessel of water, and as the water is stirred by the motion of the boat, the figure moves. The party watch his motions, singing to the guitar the strain "*anatoya monomada*," "he floats, he rests not yet," till the puppet rests opposite to one of the party, who is sentenced to drain the sakki bowl, as the forfeit of the game.

The ladies only dance. Cards and dice are prohibited, from which it appears these devices are known to them. Chess and draughts are favorite games.

They have a curious custom of concealing the death of a person, for various causes: as to secure the reversion of an office for the son or relative of the deceased, or the salary for his creditors. The first indication of the death is by turning all garments inside out, and the sliding doors and screens in the house upside down. The friends call at the door to pay their visit of condolence, but do not enter the house, because they become polluted and unclean by entering the house where a corpse is. A monument is placed at the grave of a married person, containing the name of the deceased and also of the survivor; the last being in red letters, to be blackened when the body of the survivor shall be buried with the other. The mourning garments are white. Formerly when a man died his house was burned. Now it is purified by kindling a fire before it. Servants, it is said, were anciently buried alive with their dead master. Afterward the custom changed so far as to allow the servant to kill himself before he was buried. This was usually stipulated in the contract of hiring. Now the effigy is substituted for the living man, probably with all the benefit of the old custom.*

The position of woman is as high as it is with us, and quite unlike what it is in other parts of Asia. The women are not subject to any seclusion or restriction, but hold a fair station and participate in the festivities and social enjoyments of their fathers and husbands. Their fidelity and purity are subject to no guards but their own sense of honor. So well is this confidence repaid, that it is said infidelity in a wife is scarcely known in Japan. The minds of the women are cultivated with as much care as the men, and several of the most admired authors are of the female sex. The ladies are described as lively and agreeable companions, and the ease and elegance of their manners have been particularly noticed and extolled.

* Manners and Customs of the Japanese in the 19th century, from recent Dutch visitors of Japan, and from the German work of Dr. Ph. Fr. Von Siebold, New York ed. p. 139.

James Drummond, an English gentleman, who resided some years at the Dutch factory in Japan, says of the ladies: "They have a natural grace which cannot well be described. The Japanese are the most fascinating, elegant, ladies that I ever saw in any country in the world." The gentlemen are described, also, as of pleasing address and polished manners. "To sum up the character of the Japanese," says McFarlane, "they carry notions of honor to the verge of fanaticism; and they are haughty, vindictive, and licentious. On the other hand, brawlers, braggarts, and backbiters are held in the most sovereign contempt. The slightest infraction of truth is punished with severity. They are open-hearted, hospitable, and, as friends, faithful to death. It is represented that there is no peril a Japanese will not encounter to serve a friend, that no torture will compel him to betray a trust, and that even the stranger who seeks aid will be protected to the last drop of blood."

The literature of the country comprises works of science, history, biography, geography, travels, moral philosophy, natural history, poetry, the drama, and encyclopedias. The *Nipponki*, or chronicles of Japanese history, consists of thirty volumes, and extends from 661 B. C., to A. D. 696, and was published in A. D. 720. The geographical treatises are of course not very comprehensive, including only Japan and its dependencies and the Kurile Islands, with a few neighboring countries. The biography must also be limited probably to their own country, and the travels, to the neighboring islands and to China. They have an art of printing which appears to have been invented by themselves. Their alphabet contains forty-eight letters. The learned author of the *Asia Polyglotta*, or various languages of Asia, considers the Japanese language unlike all others in structure, grammar, and all its characteristics.

The medical science of the Japanese is very limited, two cures being almost universal for all diseases. These are acupuncture and moxa. The first of these terms, expressing an operation by placing points or needles upon the skin, and, with a light hammer, driving them through. The last, moxa, is a mode of blistering or making an issue by burning a fungus, called moxa,* upon the skin. They make use, however, of a few simples.

The Japanese have made great progress in astronomy, and study the most profound European works on this subject, as Lalande's treatises. They have good telescopes, barometers, and thermometers, of their own manufacture. They have great curiosity to be informed of the state of science in Europe, and are very inquisitive on this head, and eagerly seek to acquire the knowledge of sciences which are known to European scholars. They have some knowledge of the sciences of mathematics, mechanics, trigonometry, and engineering. They possess especially great proficiency in the art of dwarfing and of enlarging trees and plants, or their parts. They have miniature gardens, in which they exhibit full-grown trees, of various kinds, only three feet high, and with heads of the same diameter. President Meylan saw, in 1826, a box, one inch in diameter by three inches high, in which were actually growing and thriving a bamboo, a fir, and a plum tree, the last in full blossom. He also saw plum trees whose blossoms were four times the size of the cabbage-rose, and radishes weighing from fifty to sixty pounds. Fifteen pounds, he says, is not an unusual size for them. The branches of fir trees,

* In the wonders of nature and art, by Rev. Thos. Smith, it is said to be the leaves of *artemisia vulgaris*, or mugwort.

at the height of seven or eight feet, are made to give a shade of three hundred feet in diameter.

The Japanese are very ingenious in all the arts. They excel particularly in giving a fine temper to steel, and their swords are the best in the world, not excepting even the once famed Damascus blades. In metallic varnish they have a skill belonging only to themselves, no other people being able to equal it. They have a peculiar art in metallurgy, in which various metals are used, some being blended and some combined, the effect of which is very beautiful. In the manufacture of fine silks and porcelain, they have a great degree of skill.

The laws of the empire are extremely rigorous; and they are not, as with some other nations, only a mesh for the smaller offenders, but it is said that the *ziogoon* and the *mihado* are both equally subject to them with all other citizens. The feudal system is existing there in perfection. The empire was originally divided into principalities to the number of sixty-six, afterward increased by the addition of two new ones, by acquisition of small islands. These principalities have been subdivided into six hundred and four departments. The princes are divided into two classes, one holding of the *mihado*, the other of the *ziogoon*. The actual government of the principalities is confided to two secretaries. The families of the princes are compelled to reside at Yeddo, the residence of the *ziogoon*, as hostages for the proper administration of the government, and the princes themselves are required to pass half of the time there. The manner in which their time is to be occupied is most minutely and exactly prescribed; even the time of their rising and lying down is fixed by law. They are not only subject to most rigorous restraints, but everything that jealousy can suggest is devised to weaken their power, and prevent it from being used against the government of the emperor. For this purpose, beside the heavy contributions which they are compelled to make to the imperial revenue, the most onerous exactions are made with a view to their impoverishment, so that, by being enfeebled, they shall not be dangerous to the government. They are each obliged to maintain a large contingent of troops at their own expense.

The police is most rigorous, every citizen being in a manner a police officer. Every town and village is parcelled into lots of five houses, the heads of each of which are bound for the good behavior of the others; thus making every citizen in the condition of a person under bail, with four securities, to the government, and having four spies upon his conduct and movements. The householders are also bound for the good order of the portion of the street in front of their dwellings, and punishable for any breach of the peace or other offense that occurs there, unless they interfere to prevent it, or report it to the government officers. No one can change his residence without a certificate of good conduct from the neighbors of his present domicile, nor without the consent of those where he intends to remove. The result of this rigorous system is, that there is not a country in the world where so few crimes against property are committed.

Though the exact number of the population of Japan has not been ascertained by the Europeans who have visited the country, yet the concurrent account of all writers represent it as very large, and some circumstances confirm the idea held by these writers. Don Vivero Y Velasco says the immensity of the population kept the strangers in perpetual wonder. Kaempfer says, that according to a census taken in 1674, the city of Miaco contained 405,642 persons, independent of the court of the *Mihado*, which is not num-

bered, and is computed at 50,000. This is not so large a city as Jeddo. Mr. Fischer estimates the diameter of this city at five or six hours' moderate walking. This cannot be less than twelve or fifteen miles. Jeddo is on a bay in the form of a crescent, and it may be supposed at least to be half of a circle or a square whose diameter is fifteen miles. Other accounts represent it larger. The population has been variously estimated at from 500,000 to 2,000,000. The crowd of people was so great that it was with great difficulty the party proceeded. It was the same in the suburbs. McFarlane estimates the content of the empire at 160,000 square miles, or nearly double that of Great Britain. Villages occur every three or four miles, and every acre of land is cultivated, to the tops of the highest mountains. These facts are evidence of a dense population, and we are compelled to the conclusion that the highest estimate made by visitors, of 50,000,000, is much too small.

The people are divided into eight classes, first, the princes, second, the noblemen, from which class the great officers of state and the generals must be taken; third, the priesthood, fourth, the military. These four classes constitute the higher orders, and enjoy the much envied privilege of wearing two swords and a petticoat. Class fifth consists of the inferior officials, and the physicians; these are allowed to wear one sword and the petticoat. Class sixth includes the merchants and shopkeepers; this class is looked upon with contempt. They are limited in their expenditures by law, not being allowed to imitate the style of costly extravagance which is not only permitted, but required of the higher orders. In consequence, they generally acquire great wealth. One of this rank is not permitted to wear a sword, except on the humiliating condition of enrolling himself as servant of some of the princes or nobles, but not under any circumstances can he aspire to the petticoat. Class seventh includes the petty traders, and the mechanics and artisans; eighth, the peasants and day laborers. There is a part of the population not included in any of these classes, being considered, from their occupation, unclean religiously, and outcasts civilly. These are all that are employed about a dead body—the executioners, undertakers, tanners and curriers, &c. They are not permitted to dwell in the towns, nor to pollute a house with their presence, but have separate villages of their own. If they have occasion for refreshment on a journey, they must take it out of doors. They are not numbered with the population, and the distance through their village is not measured in the length of the road. It is very singular that their law agrees with the law of Moses, in making unclean all who touch a dead body, or eat certain meats, and also in another uncleanness mentioned in Leviticus, 15th chap., 19th and following verses, as also in several other particulars of uncleanness.

It has been mentioned that the Japanese are very ceremonious, and very particular in their observance of the prescribed etiquette. The official duties of ceremony of the *ziogoon*, the receiving of homage, compliments, and presents, it is said, are sufficient fully to occupy three persons. They are performed by a number of courtiers holding household offices about the person of the *ziogoon*. The ceremony of the audience with the *opperhoofd*, or head of the Dutch factory, is in this manner: When the president enters, the officials announce him in the words "*Holanda Capitan*." He then crawls on his hands and knees to a place pointed out, between where the presents are ranged and the emperor, and there, kneeling, he touches the floor with his

forehead ; and then, without uttering a word, and retaining his kneeling position, he crawls backward till he is out of the apartment.*

It has been stated that only the men of the higher orders have the privilege of wearing the petticoat. This is intended to mean only the particular fashion of petticoat used by the great on occasions of ceremony. For it is said that the dress of both sexes is similar. It consists of a number of loose wide gowns, worn one over another ; those of the lower orders being of linen or calico, those of the higher order of silk. Gentlemen wear a scarf, the length of which is regulated by the rank of the wearer, and which in turn regulates the bow with which he must salute a superior, which is measured by the scarf touching the ground. To this dress is added a garb of ceremony, consisting of a cloak thrown over the other dress, and a petticoat very full and plaited, sewed up in the middle between the legs, which is worn only by the higher classes. The head dress, or rather the mode of wearing the hair, constitutes the chief difference in the costume of the sexes. In the men, the whole hair is shaved from the front head and crown, and the rest gathered and tied on the top. The women wear the whole hair, arranged in form of a turban, and ornamented with pieces of tortoise shell. Neither wear hats, except in rain ; the fan, which is universally carried, being a sufficient protection against the sun. The fan is in constant use, and for all purposes. Visitors receive dainties upon it—the beggar holds it out to receive alms. It is flourished by the dandy, as the cane among us ; the schoolmaster uses it as with us he does the ferule ; and it is presented on a salver to the high-born criminal to announce his doom.

The religion of the Japanese is polytheism. They have a great number of gods, it is said, and the temples are nearly as numerous as the dwelling houses, and generally magnificent. It is not rare, says Charlevoix, to see on them 80 or 100 cedar columns of prodigious height, and colossal statues of bronze, or even sometimes of gold or silver, with a great number of lamps and very costly ornaments. Don Vivero y Velasco, the Spanish governor of the Philippines, who was two years in the country before the era of the interdict, says that the Pantheon was the largest building he had seen in Japan ; it contained 2,600 gilt bronze statues of gods.

If a person spill a drop of blood on him, he is impure for seven days. If in building a temple a workman be wounded, he is afterward incapable of working on that or any sacred edifice ; and if this happen in building or repairing a temple of Ten-sio-dai-dsin, the temple must be pulled down. There are other causes of uncleanness, which have been before adverted to. No quadruped may be eaten except the deer, and for eating those prohibited a person is unclean for thirty days. The pheasant, crane, and aquatic birds may be eaten. He who eats others, however, is unclean only one hour. During the uncleanness, from any cause, the person must not enter a temple, nor do any act of religion.† Some writers assert that, though polytheists, the Japanese are not idolators—the gods being spiritual beings, and no worship being paid to images. The original religion is called sin-siu, from sin, gods, and siu, faith—or properly, in the Japanese language, kami-no-mitsi, or the way of the gods. It is not, however, strictly correct to say that they are polytheists, for their gods are merely spirits, but not subjects of worship, only objects of faith—Ten-sio-dai-dsin being the only object of worship.

* Kaempfer, as quoted in "Manners and Customs of the Japanese," p. 97, New York Ed.

† Charlevoix, *Hist. de Japon*.

Those which they call gods are, therefore, rather like our common idea of angels. The duties enjoined by their religion are, 1st, the preservation of a pure fire, as the emblem of purity, and instrument of purification; 2d, purity of soul, heart, and body; 3d, observance of festival days; 4th, pilgrimages; 5th, the worship of the kami, or sun goddess.*

There is another religion beside the original above mentioned: it is the religion of Buddha. Its author was a man who lived at some uncertain time variously stated at from 500 to 2,000 years before Christ. It is similar to the Buddhism of India, and said to have come from there. It was introduced into Japan by Sakya or Xaca. It teaches the immortality of the soul, both of men and animals, and the metempsychosis. 2d. That the soul, after separation from the body, is rewarded in a place of happiness, or punished in a place of misery, according to the good or evil done in the body. 3d. The souls of men differ in the nature of their actions, and will receive or enjoy different degrees of punishment or happiness. 4th. Amida is the Supreme God. 5th. It is only by the mediation of Amida that man can obtain remission of sins, and come into paradise, but he must also lead a virtuous life, and practice the five precepts of Sakya. First. Not to kill any animal. Second. Not to rob. Third. To avoid wantonness, (paillardise.)† Fourth. Not to lie. Fifth. Not to drink strong liquor.

But the most remarkable part of the religion of this people is that they have many ceremonies, observances, and emblems similar to the Catholics. These appear to belong to the original religion, but may have been ingrafted upon it since the Christian era. A Sintoo worshiper, on approaching a temple, performs ablution before entering at a reservoir provided for the purpose; he then kneels before the mirror, which is in every temple; then prays, and when he has concluded, deposits money in a box, and retires.‡ The pilgrimage to a certain temple of the sun-goddess is enjoined upon all, and by the more devout is performed yearly. They use the sign of the cross, and a chaplet of beads similar to the Catholic. The custom of sounding a clock at certain times a day is noticed by Charlevoix, which he likens to the Catholic ceremony for the Angelus. At the sound of the clock, all the people kneel, and invoke the god with a loud voice. He mentions also the pilgrimages in use, he says, by both religions, for the purpose of obtaining pardon of sins. Processions, also, in which they carry images of the gods, and relics, are mentioned by him; and also public vows and prayers to soften heaven in periods of great calamity; the right of asylum afforded by holy places; canonizations; hierarchical orders; lamps and wax candles burning before images; confession; burning of incense, and feasts.§ The

* Manners and customs of the Japanese in the 19th century, from accounts of recent Dutch visitors of Japan, and from the German work of Dr. Ph. Fr. Von Siebold, N. Y. Ed., p. 238.

† Charlevoix, *Hist. de Japon*.

‡ Manners and Customs of the Japanese in the Nineteenth Century, &c. New York Edition, page 239.

§ There is not only this remarkable resemblance in the Japanese religion to the rights and observances of the Catholic Church, but it is said by Charlevoix that the Bonzes distribute consecrated bread to which they attribute great virtue. And the London compilation from Von Siebold and others, so often quoted, states that the pilgrim when he visits the shrine receives from the priest a written absolution for his sins. (New York ed., p. 241.) Charlevoix farther informs us, that the god who is the principal object of worship is represented with three heads and four hands, to express the trinity, and the universality of his works. Nor is this all, but, from the account given by one of the missionaries, it appears that their idea of the Supreme God is the same as that taught by Christianity. "Pere Louis Froer," says Charlevoix, "has assured us that there is among the Japanese a more noble idea of Amida. They claim that this God is invisible, of a nature different from the elements, that he existed before the creation of the heaven and the earth, that he had no beginning, and will have no end; that all things were created by him; that his being extends over the

two principal sects are divided into upwards of thirty sects, each of which enjoys perfect toleration and equality before the law.*

These people surpass all others in agricultural labor and skill. With a mountainous, and for the most part naturally infertile country, their persevering labor has not only made it to yield articles for the sustenance of man throughout all the slopes and crevices of the hills, but their skill in producing vegetable monsters, both giants and dwarfs, is wonderful. "Nature has not given in vain to this people," says Kampfer, "a body robust for labor, and a mind capable of the most ingenious inventions." The country, diverse in soil and in situation, divided into mountain and lowland, consisting of separate islands, has a variety of products, and truly, says the same writer, "there are few things which we may desire that are not produced by some of the many islands or provinces." Gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, coal, sulphur, porcelain, cattle, horses, rice, figs, and other fruits, with all kinds of grain, peas and legumes in abundance, and a great number of things which serve them for their manufactures and their dress, he tells us, are the productions of this country. And he adds, that they have pearls and precious stones, and almost all kinds of drugs.

Of the trade and Commerce of Japan, or what this might be made, either in kind or amount, all must be uncertain and conjectural. Between the time of the first European visit to the country and the interdict which has excluded them, Commerce was in a state very different from its condition in our time. The world was in a different state. And if we could have an authentic statement of the Japanese Commerce with Europe at that period, it would not form a very good basis for estimating the Commerce that might grow out of friendly relations for the future. Nor can much better calculation be drawn from the restricted trade with the Dutch and Chinese since that period. The principal Dutch trade has been in copper, camphor, tea, lackered ware, porcelain, and brimstone. The cutlery, which is superior to all other, at least in the article of swords, with the metals, and some drugs and precious stones, might be added to the credit side of the Japanese ledger. But so well are all their wants supplied from their home industry, that it might be difficult to find something to lade our ships with on the outward voyage. Perhaps calicoes and agricultural implements, shoes and hats and glass ware, might help to make up the invoice.

If the fact, that two Dutch ships and twelve Chinese junks making one voyage yearly, have been sufficient to supply to Japan all she wants of foreign articles and to take away her surplus for foreign markets, and that the

heaven, the earth, and under the earth; that he is present everywhere, and governs all things; that he is unchangeable, immaterial; and that he ought to be revered as the inexhaustible source of all good." President Meylan asserts, (as the London compilation already frequently referred to informs us, p. 247, New York ed.,) that about the year 50 of our era, a Brahminical sect was introduced into Japan, the doctrines of which were the redemption of the world by the son of a virgin, who died to expiate the sins of men, thus insuring to them a joyful resurrection, and a trinity of immaterial persons, constituting one eternal, omnipresent, omnipotent God, the Creator of all, to be adored as the source of all good.

* It is well remarked, and with the force of truth, by a writer in the London Quarterly Review, vol. lii., No. 104, for November, 1834, in proof of this fact: "Nor let the cruel persecutions of the Christians in Japan be objected to me. I ask, whether this toleration was not one of the causes which so far facilitated the introduction of Christianity there?" It is related by Don Vivero y Velasco, a very pious Catholic, in 1608, that the bonzes of all the sects having concurred in a request to the emperor that he would expel our monks from Japan, the prince inquired how many different religions there were in Japan. "Thirty-five," was the reply. "Well," said he, "where thirty-five sects can be tolerated, we can easily bear with thirty-six: leave the strangers in peace." (*Asiatic Journal*, vol. ii., New York, July, 1830, p. 199.) The London compilation before referred to, in the account of the civil war about 1600, says: "Hide Yori was supported by all the Japanese Christians," p. 260. It is represented by Siebold and others that they took part in the war.

Dutch share in this monopoly of the trade has been a losing concern, so that, by the solicitation of the Dutch Company, their government took the burden off their hands, may be regarded as any indication; or if any conclusion may be drawn from the opinions of the writers from whom our knowledge of Japanese matters is derived, we are bound to form the opinion that the foreign trade of the country, if open to the world, cannot be very large in amount or very lucrative.*

The infraction of all laws in Japan is punished with death or imprisonment—mostly with death. This is the penalty inflicted upon all persons implicated in making or suffering any breach of the non-intercourse laws. If a foreigner attempts to violate the prohibitions by entering the Japanese territory, not only is he punishable with death, but the prince of the province and the military officers whose duty is to see the law enforced in the particular place, are all liable to capital punishment: and the penalty is executed with the utmost rigor, except that the officers are allowed to dispatch themselves by the harakiri. Those who bring home shipwrecked mariners are none the less criminal, if they should land, and they would be even regarded with less favor from this circumstance, it being a crime for the Japanese to leave his country, which subjects him to the sentence of death if he returns, and criminal also in those who return him.

It is known to all our readers that an expedition has been lately fitted out from our shores by the Executive of the United States, under the two-fold object of obtaining permission from the Japanese government for our steamers running to India to procure supplies of coal from Japan; and also to endeavor to induce that nation to open its ports to our trade. The expedition is charged with the return of some shipwrecked Japanese—a circumstance which will be of great danger to the success of the expedition, and may be, of itself, sufficient wholly to frustrate it. Of the probabilities of success, we shall presently say a few words. But first, we hope to be excused for noticing some erroneous opinions abroad in relation to the expedition.

The London Examiner, as quoted in the work of Dr. Talbot Watts, says the Americans "send a force to demand reparation for injuries done to themselves by such flagrant violation of the laws of nature and society; to compel the Japanese to renew their intercourse with the rest of mankind, and to forbear from the practice of a ferocious inhospitality." The same paper speculates on the insufficiency of the force, and of the best chance of success being in the bombardment of Jeddo, which, by the way, is some fourteen miles from the roadstead where the vessels will be compelled to anchor, and very judiciously recommends that the Americans should stick to their vessels, and not attempt a landing.

The Dublin Nation, as quoted by the same author, says the objects of

* In a late number of De Bow's Commercial Review, a pretty formidable list is set down of articles said to be carried by the Dutch to Japan, and an estimate is ventured, which supposes the whole trade, if it could be opened to the world, would amount to \$200,000,000. We know not from what sources the writer may have derived his facts on which to found such a computation of the amount. From what we find stated in the compilation made up from the accounts of the Dutch residents and from the work of Jancigny, taken in connection with the fact that nearly every article in use in Japan, or that could be there used, is produced or made there, and of the few vessels now employed, and even those few at a loss, we are constrained to think that a statement of one-quarter of the above amount would be incredible. Of twenty-one articles said to be carried to Japan by the Dutch, thirteen are imported by us, and some are products of the East Indies, which must forever exclude our competition; and of thirteen named as carried by the Chinese, we could carry only dried fish and whale oil; and the article of dried fish, as well as that of porcelain, are included by the writer in the list, both of imports and exports. It is by no means obvious that the trade would amount to a tithe of the sum named in De Bow.

the expedition are "to terminate the rigid exclusion which dooms to destruction the vessel of any nation which may seek the protection of its harbors from the perils of the deep, and to demand the release of numerous Europeans and Americans captured by the jealous and cruel natives, and exhibited in iron cages in various parts of the Japanese territory;" and further, "the proposal for a commercial relation is left to the free choice of the country and the government; *but the other propositions are to be rigorously enforced by the whole strength of the squadron, if force be necessary.*"

The Paris *La Patrie* says: "What England did in China twelve years ago, the United States are going to attempt in Japan;" and "the immense resources which she (the U. States) has at her disposal will permit her happily to end, sooner or later, an expedition, the success of which interests her Commerce to so high a degree." And the same paper, quoting the London Times, says: "Although the Japanese are a more warlike race than the Chinese, they could not do anything against the cannons of the three frigates."

The Edinburgh Review, October, 1852, says the objects of the expedition are "to demand satisfaction for various acts of outrage and inhumanity perpetrated by the Japanese on the crews of ships engaged in the whale fishery," (p. 183.) The same work, in relation to the expedition, speaks of it as a *warlike* one, and speculates on the result of the anticipated conflict, using the word *attack* and similar phrases, and says we cannot contemplate the *slaughter* of a gallant people without a pang of regret. Of the interdiction of the Japanese, and of the non-intercourse policy, the Review says it is a mystery which the governments of the world have a right to dispel, (p. 182;) and that other nations have a right to compel an intercourse, (p. 200,) evidently intimating that such is the object of the American Government.*

Such views as are above expressed by foreign writers, it would be quite unnecessary to notice for any purpose of enlightening American readers. But in this discussion of Japanese affairs which we have essayed with especial reference to the expedition, on which some views of our own will be added, we could not feel that the subject had received its due treatment without correcting the errors of these foreign writers in regard to the intentions of our government, especially as some of the writers are of the highest respectability, and as silence might be construed into an acquiescence in their truth. The ideas thus expressed have their origin wholly in the imagination, and are altogether erroneous, which will be apparent from three or four considerations.

1st. The instructions given by our government do not authorize the use of any force, or in the most distant manner give any intimation to the commander of the squadron that any attack is, in any event, to be made, or force used; nor are any of the purposes or objects named in the above extracts to be found in the instructions. If, therefore, the Commodore should

* Charles McFarlane, Esq., the author of a recent valuable English work on Japan, also expresses apprehensions that force may be attempted by our squadron, which he does in complimentary terms to the valor of the American troops. "Beaten," he says, "they (the Japanese) must be by men such as those who marched from the United States into Mexico; but we cannot, without emotion, think of the numbers that may be slaughtered before any surrender, capitulation, or military or political settlement whatsoever can take place," (p. 215, New York ed.) We cannot, however, feel the confidence in the result which is expressed by this author. Japan, with a population, as we think, ten to one to the Mexican, entirely homogeneous, strongly military, packed into a much less space, would meet an invading army with twenty for every one that met our troops in Mexico, and if cut down to a man, other twenty would come in the place of every score slain.

attempt force, it would be wholly unauthorized, and he would be subjected to inquiry and punishment at home, if it could be supposed, against all human probability, that the Japanese would suffer him to return home.

2d. The compulsion of any nation to a trade with us, or to any change in her laws, is entirely beyond the scope of the policy of the United States Government. It has ever contended for the right of all nations to make their own laws, without any accountability to other nations, and without any right of intervention on the part of other nations. An attempt to compel the Japanese to change their laws relating to foreign intercourse, is an attempt to destroy so far their sovereignty, and is oppugnant to the spirit of our government, and to the whole uniform course of our policy. It would be going very far beyond what Kossuth suggested that he desired it should do—far beyond what the most ardent sympathizers with nations struggling under oppression have ever suggested should be done by us in behalf of freedom.

3d. If it were within the scope of our policy, the Executive has no authority to direct hostilities against another nation without act of Congress. Every well-instructed man and boy among us knows that the President has no power to do this. This is no questionable matter. And to these reasons it might well be added, that in the face of the great populousness and warlike spirit of the Japanese, and of the resolution with which in former times they have met attacks upon them, and of the law which requires that the prince and the chief military officers of the province where any landing should be effected shall answer it with their lives, and in face of the great standing army of the empire—a hostile expedition with no greater force than the squadron ordered to Japan, would not seem to be devised by a statesman, but projected by a boy.

The Japanese, as all accounts agree, possess the military spirit of the Tartar and the northern Asiatic. They have a standing army of three hundred and fifty thousand men, are a hardy race, have a sense of honor bordering on fanaticism, and traditions of frustrated invasions of Kublai and the neighboring nations, with which their valor is warmed and their national glory is suffused with a living luster. They have the best sword in the world, said to surpass the blade of Toledo and of Damascus, and such skill with it that it is reported they can cleave a man in two, or sunder him in the thickest part of the body;* and, as before said, death is the doom, rigorously enforced, of the officers who should allow of any foreign invasion of the territory. We do not think it well judged to send so much force, or any force, to Japan, for the reason that it is liable to the construction that foreign writers have put upon it; and for the more important consideration that it will appear to the Japanese themselves to present a hostile aspect, and to be intended for intimidation, which would of itself be sufficient to frustrate the objects of the expedition.

The idea of our government in sending a force there, probably has been that it should exert a moral force, not a physical; that it should impress the Japanese with the idea of our national greatness and power. But this with such an extremely jealous people, and one not susceptible of intimidation, is a great mistake. It is exactly the thing that should have been avoided. Another error committed is the charge of returning those Japanese who had been shipwrecked, to their country. This, in the eye of the Japanese law,

* Don Vivero y Velasco. *Asiatic Journal*, July, 1830, p. 230.

instead of being viewed as a kindness, is a legal wrong, a violation of law, an offence which is subject to punishment. Instead of conciliating the Japanese government, its effect will be the contrary. Of this our government has been notified by the Japanese emperor. This will be another cause for rendering the expedition unsuccessful. A third will be that our government asks too much. It should have rested satisfied with one thing, the one of most important necessity. If, studious of the Japanese peculiarities of law, dispositions, and customs, and anxiously seeking to avoid everything that might, in either, give offence, our commissioner were charged with only one request, that our steamers on their passage to China and India might obtain a supply of coal at a Japanese port, or that of one of the dependencies, there might be a chance that this might be granted; and this once obtained, the rest might be safely left to time and circumstance, with such a people, the best negotiators. But even this request for coal would be more likely to be successful when made by the master of each boat for himself, than by the formal presentment of a government envoy. This or any other requests would be likely to receive more favor if made by the Dutch government than any other. It seems indeed, by the note verbale of the Netherlands Minister to the late Secretary of State, that this request, which is made the principal and foremost one in that officer's instructions to Com. Aulick, was already granted before asking. The note runs, "It is a matter of public notoriety that foreign vessels are excluded from Japan by the government of that empire. It was, nevertheless, determined in 1842, that if such vessels should be cast upon the shores of Japan by storms, or come there in want of provisions, with a view of asking for such commodities, water, or wood for fuel, those articles should be granted to them on request." Any show of menace or peremptory demand would be likely to cause a withdrawal of these indulgences.

At various periods since the existence of the interdict several attempts have been made by Russian, English, American, French, and other navigators to gain permission to trade, or to be allowed to go on shore, all with the same result. In 1791 the Argonaut, in 1803 the Frederic, in 1808 the Phaeton, English frigate, in 1818 Capt. Gordon, of the English navy, in a small brig, successively appeared in the waters of Japan, and, at different points, requested permission to trade. They were all civilly but firmly refused. In the case of the Phaeton, an expedition was planned to burn her, headed by the prince of the province, and great military preparation was made for the execution of the plan. This was in consequence of some violence of Capt. Pellew, in seizing two men of the Dutch factory, and in making menaces to the Japanese authorities. There was about this time an appearance of a disposition on the part of the Japanese to relax somewhat of the extreme rigor of their policy; but this ill-judged conduct of Capt. Pellew again caused all their caution to revive. The Phaeton suddenly left the harbor, and thus prevented the meditated attack. But the Governor of Nagasaki, knowing that he had incurred the penalty of death for suffering the ship to escape, assembled his household, and performed execution on himself by ripping open his abdomen, and the several commanders of the neglectful military posts followed his example. The Prince of Fizen, who at the time was residing at Yeddo, on the farther side of the kingdom, in obedience to the requirement of law, was punished with one hundred days imprisonment for the neglect of these military officers who had charge in his absence.

Notwithstanding this unfortunate visit of Capt. Pellew, Capt. Gordon, ten

years later, was treated with great civility, though the authorities compelled him to deliver to them his rudder, and surrounded his vessel with about sixty gun boats and guard boats. In 1845 Capt. Sir Edward Belcher, in the frigate *Samarang*, entered the harbor of Nagasaki, and requested leave to go on shore to make some astronomical observations. This was granted. This, however, was accorded by some of the inferior officers underhandedly, and they expressed to the strangers that if it were repeated it would lead to their punishment. The officers of the frigate were much impressed with the manners of the Japanese. The narrative represents that "they were most polite and courteous, conducting themselves with refined and polished urbanity, and exhibiting in their actions a dignified and respectful demeanor, that put to shame the ill breeding of the seamen who ventured to laugh at them." Indeed, the English and Americans may take lessons in manners from this highly civilized and refined people. The ships above named were English.

Several American vessels have at times made attempts to gain a footing in the country. The first was in the year 1797, during the war between England and Holland. The war between the two powers making it dangerous for Dutch vessels to traverse the ocean, the Dutch authorities at Batavia engaged the American ship *Eliza*, of New York, to take the place of the Dutch annual vessel. The appearance of a vessel bearing the Dutch flag, but with a crew speaking another language, was a riddle which perplexed the Japanese, and awakened their jealousy. The Dutch residents were at last able to make all clear, and she was permitted to leave her cargo and take another. This was all in her Dutch character and for Dutch account. But Capt. Stewart, her commander, in a few years after presented himself in another vessel, under the American flag, and requested permission to trade, which was refused. He was supplied with water—it being the uniform practice to furnish vessels in want of refreshments or provisions not only freely, but gratuitously. Other American vessels have been subsequently supplied in like manner. We shall mention only two of these.

In 1831 a Japanese junk was blown off to sea, and cast ashore on our northwest coast, near the mouth of Columbia River. After some years they were carried to Macao, and thence taken by the American ship *Morrison*, of New York, to be returned to their own country. Mr. King, a merchant of the latter place, who went with them, laid before the emperor a paper of this tenor: "Our countrymen have not yet visited your country, but only know that, in old times, the merchants of all nations were admitted to your harbors. Afterward, having transgressed the law, they were restricted or expelled. Now we, coming for the first time, and having done no wrong, request permission to carry on a friendly intercourse on the ancient footing." It does not appear that any answer was received from the emperor, or time allowed for its transmission. The vessel was compelled, by hostile preparation on shore, to leave the harbor and put to sea. The shipwrecked mariners were carried back with them to Macao. On this affair being mentioned to some of the Japanese officials at Nagasaki, by Capt. Belcher, in 1845, they said—"We never allow any Japanese to return under such circumstances. We sent a junk full back to the emperor of China, and he is our ally."

An American whaleship, the *Mercator*, Capt. Cooper, cruising to the north of the Japanese Archipelago in 1845, took eleven shipwrecked Japanese from a sinking wreck, and eleven others from a rock on which they had been cast. He proceeded with them to Japan, and anchored in the bay of Jeddo. The next day after coming to anchor, from three hundred and seventy to three

hundred and eighty junks surrounded the vessel, each carrying from fifteen to thirty men, well armed. They took the ship in tow and carried her in front of a town, where they guarded her with three rows of junks. The crowd of people was immense. The ship, awaiting the order of the emperor, remained three days in the bay, the curiosity of the people daily increasing. At the end of this time the captain received orders to depart. They gave him a great quantity of provisions, and returned his arms, which, according to custom, they had taken ashore on his arrival. The boats that had towed him into port took him in tow again in the same number, making a file more than a mile long. The order received from the emperor was in these words: "I am informed, by the mouth of some shipwrecked persons of our country, that these shipwrecked men have been brought home by your ship, and that they have been well treated. But, according to our laws, they must not be brought home, except by the Chinese or Dutch. Nevertheless, in the present case we shall make an exception, because the return of these men by you must be attributed to your ignorance of these laws. In future, Japanese subjects will not be received in like circumstances, and will have to be treated rigorously when returned. You are hereby advised of this, and that you must make it known to others.

"As, in consequence of your long voyage, provisions, and wood and water are wanting on board your ship, we have regard to your request, and whatever you want will be given to you.

"As soon as possible after the reception of this order the ship must depart, and return directly to her own country."

That our vessels might not again do the same ignorantly, the Netherlands minister was requested to send to our government a note, in accordance with the wish of the emperor, calling its attention to an imperial decree promulgated in 1843, in these terms:—

"Shipwrecked persons of the Japanese nation must not be brought back to their country, except on board of Netherlands or Chinese ships; for, in case these shipwrecked persons shall be brought back on the ships of other nations, they *will not be received*.

"Considering the express prohibition of the Japanese subjects themselves to explore, or to make of their own authority reconnoissances on the coasts or islands of the empire, this prohibition, for greater reason, is extended to foreigners."

The more important attempts, and those more directly in point, and worthy of consideration as indicators of what may be expected from the present expedition, are those formally made in the name and behalf of other governments. A Japanese vessel was wrecked on the coast of Siberia, and the Empress Catharine ordered that such of the crew as had been saved should be conveyed home. They were accordingly sent, and by instructions from the empress were directed to endeavor to establish such friendly relations as might be for the mutual benefits of both countries. They are adjoining neighbors, Japan possessing the southern Kurile Islands, and Russia the northern. Capt. Laxman, who returned the Japanese, and made known the wishes of the Russian sovereign, received this answer in writing:—

"1st. That although their laws inflict perpetual imprisonment on every stranger landing in any part of the Japanese empire, the harbor of Nagasaki excepted, yet in consideration of the ignorance of these laws pleaded by the Russians, and of their having saved the lives of several Japanese subjects, they are willing to waive the strict enforcement of them in the present in-

stance, provided Lieutenant Laxman will promise, for himself and his countrymen, to return immediately to his own country, and never again to approach any part of the coast but the harbor aforesaid.

"2d. That the Japanese government thanks the Russians for the care taken of its subjects, but at the same time informs them that they may either leave them or carry them back again, as they think fit, as the Japanese consider all men to belong to whatever country their destiny may carry them, and where their lives may have been protected.*"

In *L'Univers*, on *histoire et description de tous les peuples*, etc., by M. A. D. B. de Jancigny, the author relates the attempt made by the king of Holland to open some of the ports of Japan to the Commerce of the world. A proposition of this kind from that quarter, would undoubtedly be more likely to meet with acceptance than from any other nation. The Dutch being the only nation who enjoy any commercial advantage or relation with Japan, the proposal comes from them without any suspicion of interested motive. In 1844-5, he says, an attempt was made by the king of Holland to lead the Japanese government to examine seriously if it would not be for the interests of Japan to anticipate the inevitable tendencies of European civilization and Commerce, and to open gradually its ports to other vessels beside the Dutch. This attempt, far from having the result which the generous motive merited, seems, on the contrary, to have confirmed the Japanese in their exclusive system. Drawing, from the example of China, the conclusion that unforeseen events might compel her, in spite of herself, to multiply her points of contract with other nations of the earth, the king remarked that the proximity in which Japan was to the English colonies at Hong-kong and the mouth of the Yang-tse-kiang, now open to European nations, would fatally draw this nation to a near crisis, the consequences of which it would seem prudent to prevent by concessions satisfactory to Europeans. He then solicited the *ziogoon* to open not only Nagasaki, but two or three other ports in Nippon and Yezo to foreign vessels without distinction of flag.

"You will easily understand," added the king of Holland, "that my interest must suggest to me counsels contrary to those I give you, since as long as you persevere in the present system, my nation will alone make a monopoly of your Commerce, but it is precisely the friendship with which you have favored us in preference to other people, that imposes on us the duty of calling your attention to the future which threatens you. If you longer refuse to take the place which you ought to hold among commercial nations, you will be forced in your intrenchments, and be humiliated as the Celestial empire has been. Spare yourself this humiliation, in season, by generous measures, which will conciliate to you the esteem and sympathy of European powers."

The king of Holland, we must think, erred in the motive of fear presented to the emperor, and also in referring to the fact of the English invasion of China, and of her colonies planted in the Celestial empire. If we had desired to present to the *ziogoon* an argument in favor of the present Japanese policy, we should not have known where to look for one more cogent

* The above answer would seem to be mistranslated, as, in the expression of thanks for saving the lives of the Japanese, it appears at variance with the statements given of their law in relation to the criminality of such persons, with the other instances of returning shipwrecked natives, and with the answer to Sir Edward Belcher, unless, as the closing part of the answer seems to show, it was intended only as a courteous expression toward the Russians for having designed it as a kindness—not for any kindness or favor actually done in restoring the men to their country.

to such a courageous and extremely jealous people. Possibly if the king of Holland had addressed his counsels to the *ziogoon* prior to the English attack upon China, avoiding all argument to the fears of the Japanese, we might now be rejoicing in a different result. His letter was *mal-apropos* in season and in tenor.

Thus the two European powers most favorably situated, and from whom the request for an open Commerce would be most likely to be well received, have made the proposal, and, in each case, met a refusal.

In 1846, President Polk dispatched two of our national ships, the *Columbus* and *Vincennes*, to Japan, under the command of Capt. Biddle, to endeavor to open a trade with that country. In his letter to the emperor the president says:—

"I send you an envoy of my own appointment, an officer of high rank in his country, who is no missionary of religion. He goes by my command, to bear to you my greeting and good wishes, and to promote friendship and Commerce between the two countries.

"You know that the United States of America now extends from sea to sea, that the great countries of Oregon and California are parts of the United States, and that from these countries, which are rich in gold and silver and precious stones, our steamers can reach the shores of your happy land in less than twenty days."

"Many of our ships will now pass in every year, and some, perhaps, in every week, between California and China. These ships must pass along the coasts of your empire. Storms and winds may cause them to be wrecked on your shores, and we ask and expect from your friendship and your greatness, kindness for our men, and protection for our property. We wish that our people may be permitted to trade with your people; but we shall not authorize them to break any law of your empire.

"Our object is friendly commercial intercourse and nothing more. You may have productions which we should be glad to buy, and we have productions which might suit your people.

"Your empire contains great abundance of coal; this is an article which our steamers in going from California to China must use. They would be glad that a harbor in your empire should be appointed to which coal might be brought, and where they might always be able to purchase it.

"In many other respects Commerce between your empire and our country would be useful to both. Let us consider well what new interests may arise from these recent events, which have brought our two countries so near together, and what purposes of friendly amity and intercourse this ought to inspire in the hearts of those who govern both countries."

The letter of the president is couched in very courteous and conciliatory terms, and dictated with great prudence. We think, as before intimated, it it would have been still better if all reference to Commerce had been omitted, and all boasting of the greatness of our country been avoided. The answer given to Com. Biddle from the *ziogoon* was in these words:—

"According to the Japanese laws, the Japanese subjects cannot trade, except with the Dutch and Chinese. It will not be allowed that America make a treaty with Japan, or trade with this empire, seeing that this is not permitted to any other nation. What relates to foreign countries is determined at Nagasaki, not here in the bay. Consequently you must depart as soon as possible, and not return again to Japan.*"

* Translated from Jancigny. We have not the original before us.

On the day preceding the departure of the *Columbus* and *Vincennes* from the bay of Yedo, the 28th July, a French ship of war, commanded by Admiral Cecille, entered the harbor of Nagasaki. It does not appear, however, that the admiral made any proposal for a trade or intercourse with the country, but merely requested a supply of water and provisions.

As to the idea of forcing Japan to alter her laws or policy for our benefit, such a thing can find no sanction in an American Congress. Such an enterprise can never proceed from our shores. Every citizen of this country has that in his breast which repels, at once, such a suggestion. We are not ready, we shall never, as a nation, be ready for such villainy. But we consider it extremely doubtful if any nation in the world, except Great Britain, has the physical ability to accomplish it. If it should ever be done, it will be by that power. But it will be no Chinese, nor no Mexican war. Anything less than an armada of thirty of the heaviest and best ships of the navy of Great Britain or the United States, with 100,000 well-appointed troops, would do better to try its tactics and its metal on some other shores. The English may find it holiday work to overrun India and China, but when they put themselves in front of a Tartar with a sword better than their own and with death awaiting him behind if he suffers the invader to advance they will find every inch of ground they measure with their feet on Japanese soil, will be well paid for. Russia and France are too far distant for such an attempt. England has an advantage from her neighboring possessions in India, where her ships may be refitted and her armies recruited. It is true the Japanese musketeer is not equal to the infantry soldier of England. His musket is a matchlock, and his infantry tactics may be very inferior. But he has cannon, and makes his own powder; he has a horse, and knows well its use; he has arrows, and knows how to point them; and a pike, which, if not so good as the opposing metal, will, in some cases, be found "available."

There seems even less chance by direct negotiation or solicitation. The Japanese despise trade and traders. The private soldier holds a grade above the richest merchant. Their own country supplies all their wants, or nearly, and their limited trade with China and the Dutch leaves them nothing to want for convenience or luxury. Commerce is not needed for government revenue. The princes are obliged to support the army, each one his quota of troops. There is no civil list, as with us, swallowing millions of revenue. And whatever is required for the support of the emperor and his court is easily made up by the feudal contributions, or by tithes, taxes, and levies upon the people. All connected with the government, therefore, have no interest in promoting foreign Commerce, and the four higher classes look upon all persons concerned in trade as inferior, and in a degree degraded. The extreme jealousy of this people has been spurred by the English war upon China, and it may be supposed they would be, since that event, more convinced of the safety and necessity of their policy, and more determined rigorously to maintain it.

Commerce must open its own way to Japan. Let our steamers stop at Nagasaki regularly for coal, let all our ships, which can do so, put into that port for refreshments, let them be acquainted with our character; and if they find it good, if our men are guilty of no wrong there, in a course of years they may relax their policy so far as to admit some one article of ours, or give us such license as the Dutch; and so, gradually and easily, Commerce may work its own way to a more extended trade.

The trade with Japan does not promise great results. The Dutch factory found it rather a losing business, and were glad to give up the largest part of it to the government. But if it were gold in exchange for iron, weight for weight, our government will not take it by robbery.

Art. II.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NO. IV.

RALEIGH'S CHARTER AND EXPEDITIONS—AMIDOS AND BARLOW, GRENVILLE, ETC.—EVENTS TO 1600
—REVIEW OF ACHIEVEMENTS WITHIN THE UNITED STATES UP TO 1600—DITTO IN THE REST OF AMERICA—CAUSES OF NEGLECT OF THE UNITED STATES—GROSNOLD'S VOYAGE, TRADE AND FISHERY AT NEW ENGLAND—PRING—GILBERT—DE MONTS—WEYMOUTH—NORTH AND SOUTH VIRGINIA COMPANIES—COMMERCIAL FEATURES OF THEIR CHARTERS—SETTLEMENTS—TRADE, FISHERY, ETC.—DUTCH TRADING STATIONS AT HUDSON RIVER—TOBACCO—JAMES'S REGULATIONS THEREON—VIRGINIA SLAVE TRADE—SMITH'S TRADING AND FISHING VOYAGE TO NEW ENGLAND—PLYMOUTH COUNCIL, ETC.

GILBERT, failing in his efforts to colonize America, and perishing in his second expedition, in 1583, RALEIGH, the next year, renewed the patent for six years longer. This instrument gave him the right of *exclusive trade* and unlimited powers as lord proprietor, over all heathen lands which he should find between the 33d and 40th degrees of north latitude. The right of visit, however, was reserved to vessels overtaken by stress of weather, or those of the kingdom engaged in the Newfoundland fisheries, a business in which English vessels had been engaged for near seventy years, and the French for ten or fifteen years longer. One-fifth of the gold and silver that might be found, was stipulated also, as in most of the patents subsequently granted, as the property of the crown.

Under this charter, Raleigh commenced that series of efforts for colonizing the new world, which, pursued with a perseverance worthy of a better fortune, have, notwithstanding their utter failure, connected his name forever with the history of its leading nation. The same year, Capts. Amidos and Barlow were dispatched, with two small vessels, on an expedition, chiefly of exploration. Reaching the coast of North Carolina by way of the Canaries and West Indies, they opened a trade with the Indians, exchanging iron and other metals, of which the Indians had none except a little copper, and which they were very eager to obtain, for *furs and skins*, principally. For a tin dish, twenty skins, and for a copper kettle, fifty skins were obtained. Each skin was worth about a noble. Several weeks were spent in traffic, along the coast of North Carolina, at Pamlico Sound and other parts, and in September they returned to England, having made a very profitable voyage, and, as would be expected under the circumstances, setting forth the virtues of the country, in their report, in glowing terms. It is hard for people to be in ill humor with that which is the occasion of profit to them. To the merchants of England goodly promise was held out in the abundance of valuable peltry, of which there was but a very insufficient supply in Europe, and moreover in the unbounded wealth of the soil, "the most plentiful, sweete, fruitfull, and wholesome of all the worlde;" in the "above fourteene severall sweete smelling timber trees," needed by England for constructing her ships; in the growth of "sassafras and divers other medic-

inable hearbes and trees," then deemed of the highest account in physic; in the luxuriance of the vine, furnishing the Indians with wine which they could have drank through the whole year, but for want of casks to keep it in winter. Even the precious spices and drugs, were promised to enrich their trade, the water drank by the Indians on the failure of wine being "sodden with *ginger* in it, and black *sinamon*" as well as different herbs. All these were to be obtained so *cheaply*, too—and to encourage further this profitable intercourse, the natives were represented as "most gentle, loving, and faithfull, voide of all guile, and such as live after the manner of the golden age."

Enthusiasm rose at once to a high pitch, and Raleigh was easily enabled to fit out his second expedition in 1585, of seven vessels and 108 emigrants for permanent colonization. Sir Richard Grenville, the naval head of the enterprise, followed Amidos and Barlow in the West India route, the object in taking that course, being with those and others after them, not as has been stated, that they feared to attempt a more direct course, but to make captures of the richly laden ships, bound homeward to Spain from her colonial possessions. Roanoke Island, at which the former adventurers had traded, was reached, some barter carried on, a settlement formed on the Island, and the *search for gold* commenced, arrangements being made with the Indians to provide them with regular supplies of food, at regular stations on the journey inward. The Indians failed of their contract, and the explorers were obliged to eat dog-flesh on the way back.

England had, at this time, four objects of interest in America, to each of which her attention was strongly directed, all having a commercial reference, and all (except two) directed to different points, viz:—1. The *Newfoundland fishery*, the oldest of these objects, which had grown up very fast since Gilbert's first voyage, and which the English now attempted, ineffectually, to make exclusive, capturing several vessels of other nations loading there with fish and furs, in 1585. To encourage this fishery and also shipbuilding, as well as to multiply seamen, a statute enforced by heavy penalties the rigid observation of church regulations, forbidding flesh on *one hundred and fifty-three days in the year*. 2. A *northwest passage* to China and India, for the discovery of which a company existed in London, which sent out Capt. John Davis, in 1585, who entered the straits on the west side of Greenland, which still bear his name. By this route, of the existence of which no doubt was felt, it was hoped to rival Portugal in the trade of the East, if not to monopolize it altogether. 3. And at present, the leading object, the *plunder of the rich Commerce of Spain* with her American colonies. Sir Francis Drake, to whose care this branch of the English interest in America was, at this time, mainly confided, took St. Augustine, Florida, in 1585, extorted a heavy ransom from Carthagea, in New Grenada, and sacked and pillaged St. Domingo, acquiring a booty, in all, of £600,000 during the year, a much more profitable result than seeking wealth in Virginia. 4. And last, *colonization*, which completely failed in 1585, the famished settlers of Virginia going back to England with Drake, who chanced to visit them on his return from his marauding expedition. The first and third of these were considered *paying* enterprises—the second and fourth had been *only*, except as to some incidental benefits, *losing* attempts.

But Raleigh was not yet discouraged. In 1587, (while Davis was on his third northwestern voyage,) he dispatched another expedition of three ships with 150 emigrants. This colony was destroyed the next year, by starvation

or by the Indians, a result due to the ambition or cupidity of their governor, John White, who being sent with supplies to them, could not avoid the temptation of cruising among the West Indies for Spanish ships, which he found, but so much to his own disadvantage that he returned to England, and left the colony to its fate, the arrival of the Invincible Armada engaging then all attention in England.*

In 1589, Raleigh disposed of his patent to a company of London merchants, without any condition but that they should establish and maintain trade between England and America, and if gold and silver were found, that he should receive a share. He had expended over £40,000, nearly all his fortune, upon his projects, and Virginia was without an English inhabitant. The new company made very little effort, attempting no new colony, and the charter being near expiring, soon gave up all thought of their American domain.

To show how the thoughts of English adventurers and merchants were engaged during the rest of the century, and the first years of the next, we will briefly mention the leading enterprises of the period in question. In 1591, the *Turkey* company was formed, mainly for trade to the Levant, sending three ships, however, to India, in their first year, and three more in 1596. Meanwhile public and private expeditions ravaged the coast of Brazil and Spanish America, among the leaders of which were Cavendish and Sir James Lancaster. In 1594, the English took 39 Spanish ships engaged in the American trade; at Pernambuco, alone, Lancaster took 15 ships, loaded from the merchandise of an East India carrack wrecked there, and with sugar, cotton, and Brazil wood. Such enterprises were more profitable than fruitless efforts at colonization and the building up of legitimate Commerce in America, and suppressed any remaining inclination, if there were any, toward these once favorite projects. The same year Barentz was sent from England for the discovery of the northwest passage. In 1595, Raleigh sailed up the Orinoco, in search of the fabulous kingdom of *El Dorado*. In 1596-7, the Spaniards and English were exploring the western coast of America northwardly, Sir Francis Drake reaching as high as 48° north. In 1598, the French established a small fishing colony at Sable Island, 90 miles S. E. from Nova Scotia, consisting of but 40 men, which lasted seven years. In 1598, it is asserted, that persons in the employ of a Dutch Greenland company, selected the site of the city of New York as a convenient place for passing the winter months. The same year the English whale fishery at Greenland commenced.

At the year 1600 the region of America comprising the territory of the United States contained but a single settlement. Except for the little Spanish colony at St. Augustine, it was as entirely unoccupied by Europeans as in the year 1500. For a whole century the resources which it possessed for the establishment of a vast Commerce, and for the nourishment of colonies into mighty empires, were offered in vain. All the achievement effected consisted of this—Cabot for the English, and Venezzani for the French, had explored most of the Atlantic coast; the Spaniards had completed the survey from Carolina southwardly, and had traced the whole Gulf shore; Nar-

* The grand Armada sent by Spain against England, in 1588, consisted of 130 ships, of which 100 were larger than any before built, carrying 19,795 men, beside 34,000 in flat boats—64,000 in all.

According to Raleigh, the English had, in 1588, 120 sail of merchant ships, of 150 tons average—22,500 tons, carrying 6,000 men, 40 to a ship, showing that they were used chiefly at that time as privateers. The Queen's navy consisted of 40 ships of her own, and 110 hired of her subjects, carrying 24,100 men.

væz and De Soto had made fruitless attempts at conquest—or rather had searched vainly for gold mines in the Southern States; D'Ayllon had carried a cargo of slaves from South Carolina to Hayti: the Huguenots had made ineffectual efforts to colonize South Carolina and Florida, the Spaniards replacing them in the latter; and Raleigh's efforts in North Carolina had resulted only in leaving the bones of some Europeans to bleach on its soil. Connected with all these efforts had been a traffic with the Indians for furs and skins, or fish, game, and corn, which had given some profit to European merchants; and in four cases vessels had been built on the shores of the United States and launched in its waters, but only to escape from a country deemed so inhospitable.

The success attending efforts made during this time in other parts of the continent, affords a remarkable contrast to the results in this quarter. The Spaniards were in the enjoyment of a vast colonial empire in America. Cuba, when but eight years settled, was able to undertake and complete the great object of the conquest of such a kingdom as Mexico, while yet colonizing also other places around. She had now a population of about 20,000 whites. Hayti, Jamaica, Porto Rico, and other of the larger West India Islands, had been vigorously colonized, and furnished large exports of gold, sugar-cane, tobacco, to Spain, receiving in return a great amount of Spanish manufactures and produce. On the continent, Mexico, a province of noble dimensions, was populating with astonishing rapidity. The capital city contained at this time not less than 50,000 Spaniards, beside as many as 200,000 Indians. Such was the splendid metropolis of Spain's American empire. It had been about fourscore years occupied by Spaniards, and was of more than seven times the white population of any English city founded in America during the last century, at that age. Mexico held commercial intercourse with the West Indies and Spain, on the Atlantic, and with the East Indies by the Pacific. It appears that many years before this time the Viceroy of Mexico actually contemplated the *conquest of China*.* Guatemala, New Granada, Venezuela, Quito, Buenos Ayres, Brazil, (now held by Spain, in virtue of her dominion over Portugal,) Paraguay, and Chili, were all respectable provinces, while Peru, though behind Mexico in population, excelled her in wealth. The line of Spanish settlements extended along the coast, on the Atlantic, from Florida to the River La Plata, and on the Pacific from Acapulco to Patagonia. There were several hundred thousand Spaniards in America, and Spain had drawn thence, in the precious metals alone, an average of \$3,000,000, from 1500 to 1545, and of \$11,000,000 from 1545 to 1600†—in all not less than \$740,000,000, the effect of which had been to augment the amount in circulation in Europe to about five times the quantity in existence there in 1500. Beside sugar-cane, &c., Brazil wood (for dyeing) had become an important article of export, and the potato, from America, had been spread over the south of Europe, and was advancing into Germany and England.

It was not for want of ability that other nations of Europe (excepting Portugal) had effected nothing in America, beyond the resort of one or two of them to the fishing grounds at Newfoundland and Greenland, while Spain has accomplished results so splendid. The Dutch, according to Sir Walter Raleigh, had, at 1600, as many vessels as any other *eleven* nations of Europe, building about 1,000 tons yearly. But the fisheries of the British seas, and

* Murray's Discoveries in Asia, vol. iii.

† Humboldt.

the carrying trade of Europe, had hitherto engaged all their attention, and their first remote enterprise, just beginning, was extended the opposite way to America, to the Indian Ocean. Such sovereigns as Henry VIII. and Elizabeth ruled England within this century, and had advanced her to a high position among the European powers. France had witnessed the splendid reigns of Francis the First, the rival of Charles the Fifth, and of Henry of Navarre, and was becoming the leading manufacturing nation of Europe.

The principal cause for the neglect of the United States region, was the failure of the search for the precious metals there. But had these existed in any such quantity as in Mexico and Peru, Spain would, no doubt, as being first and most energetic in the search, have made the first discovery, and have enlarged her colonial limits by the whole area of the mineral field. Of what account was the feeble search of Raleigh's colonies, and the Huguenots hardly venturing from the coast, or even the attempts of the Virginia plantation, after this time, compared with the grand exploration of eleven at least of the States of this Union, made by De Soto in 1539-43? It was only by the apparent absence of the precious metals, then, that this part of America was kept open until after 1600, for colonization by other powers than Spain; and had she first occupied it, it cannot be doubted that she would have been able to hold it, since her rivals were unable to wrest from her any other of her many American provinces, except one or two West India Islands. Even in the absence of gold and silver the Spaniards were beforehand, having, as we have remarked, the only European colony existing at this time within the United States, at St. Augustine, Florida. Between this place and Cuba some little trade was kept up—the only Commerce, except the traffic of the Indians with each other, carried on within the region between Newfoundland and the West Indies.

But gold and silver in *other* parts of America, as we have already noticed, tended to lure away the attention of the other nations from central North America. The achievements of Spain, while furnishing an incentive to the occupation of the unappropriated parts of America, yet counteracted the very influence they were calculated to produce. It was a much more profitable enterprise to search for gold in Spanish hulks, and to exact it from provincial seaports as the price of safety, than to hunt amid hills and river-courses destitute of the smallest auriferous infusion.

We have alluded to the East Indies, of which the discovery by the way of the Cape of Good Hope was about cotemporary with that of America, as drawing attention greatly from the latter. The attention of the Portuguese, then the most adventurous people of Europe, was concentrated almost exclusively in this direction during the whole century—they had even visited China soon after 1500, and were established in Japan before 1550. Busy as they were in America, the Spaniards had not neglected India either; in fact, all the voyages noticed of the English and French toward America between 1500 and 1600, except those of Gilbert and Raleigh, had reference mainly to the discovery of a northwestern route to the eastern parts of Asia, in the hope, by a shorter channel, of ~~wresting from the Portuguese~~ the whole, or a share at least, of that trade which the latter had found so valuable. Not less than twelve English voyages, and seven by the French, were made during the century for this object, one of the English expeditions consisting of Frobisher's squadron of fifteen ships.

Africa, neglected as it had been before the discovery of the western continent, also assisted, at this time, to draw attention from North America, by

its connection with South America and the West Indies. The slave trade between these places was entered into by the English as early as 1562, and had become of sufficient importance to be the patented object of a great company in England. Thus the commercial enterprise of England looked everywhere but to the region which would afford it the most profit of all. Chartered monopolies pursued their objects of gain in all other parts of the world, but North America was not deemed worth the attention of a company, and the fisheries, regarded as its only point of value, were left free to individual effort. The prospect of any use being soon made of its boundless resources, was indeed very poor at the opening of the seventeenth century.

After a suspension of the English sailing toward Virginia, (as the region of the United States was then indefinitely called,) some of the disgust occasioned by the failures of Raleigh had subsided, and Bartholomew Gosnold was sent out in a single vessel with thirty-two men, twelve of them intended for the beginning of a colony. Gosnold sailed directly westward, (*not* the first, however, who had done so, as is often alledged, for Cabot and Gilbert, and all the northwestern navigators had preceded him in the route.) Gosnold found fish very plenty around Cape Cod, and extolled this coast as far better for fishing resorts than Newfoundland. One of the narrators of the voyage predicts that, "forasmuch as merchants are diligent inquisitors after gains, they will soon remove their trade from Newfoundland" to this place, where there is better climate, more security against pirates, and better harbors, beside requiring less expense for outfit, and a shorter voyage. But fish was not all the wealth here found; for there were "many commodities besides, of good importance and value," and the land was described as altogether the goodliest they ever saw. Gosnold trafficked with the Indians at Buzzards' Bay, in Massachusetts, the place particularly alluded to in the above, and from this trade, and the collections of his men, obtained a cargo of sassafras, (very valuable then in medicine,) cedar and other woods, various gums from the forest, furs, skins, and fish. He returned without making a settlement, his intended colony being too weak to leave behind, and beside not wishing to lose their share in the profits of the voyage, which was in a pecuniary light very successful. They arrived home in five weeks, the whole adventure occupying but four months, which was far shorter than any previous voyage to America. Of course, the report given, confirmed by the veracious witnesses under the deck, re-awakened the interest of merchants and fishermen, especially in the forgotten Virginia. Profit was clearly to be made there, and no farther incitement than the knowledge of that fact could be needed.*

In 1603 several merchants of Bristol sent out two vessels, under Martin Pring, who explored the coast from Penobscot Bay to Martha's Vineyard, and traded at different points with the Indians for sassafras, furs, &c., fully confirming Gosnold's report. In the same year Capt. Gilbert, sent out from London, visited the coast of New England and traded with the Indians, extending his voyage to the West Indies. These voyages were continued by the London and Bristol merchants yearly after the voyage of Gosnold, but having reference only to trade and the fisheries.

In 1603 Henry IV. of France granted to the *Sieur de Monts* the territories in America between 40° and 46° north latitude, which includes all of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Nova Scotia, and part of New

* In 1602, Weymouth and Knight were sent from England in search of the northwest passage.

Brunswick and Canada, the object being the *fur trade*, which had been carried on by the French at their fisheries and in the St. Lawrence. In 1604 he proceeded to America and established a colony, at first on Schoodic Island, in the St. Croix River, and since the adjustment of the northeast boundary in 1843, within the limits of the State of Maine. Here, and at different places in Nova Scotia and at the St. Lawrence, he trafficked with the Indians, coasting also along as far as Cape Cod, where he intended to establish afterward a second colony, and finally removing his settlement to Port Royal, in Acadia, (Nova Scotia.) Champlain at the same time was trading on the St. Lawrence.

In 1605 the Earl of Southampton and Lord Arundel of Wardour fitted out a vessel from England, under Capt. George Weymouth, who sailed up the Penobscot River, the country adjoining being remarked as the finest they had ever seen. Some of his men, who had sailed with Raleigh up the *Oronoco* in 1595, in his search for El Dorado, put the Penobscot far ahead of that great river—the *Oronoco* being 1,500 miles long, the Penobscot 250 miles! They trafficked here with the Indians, obtaining fine furs at very cheap rates for beads, knives, combs, &c. It is well to remark here, that as trade of this kind was the leading object of these voyages, all the vessels thus sent were well provided with such small articles as were most likely to take the fancy of the Indians. The "True Relation" published of this voyage confirmed the previous accounts, and gave much additional information in regard to the resources and advantages for Commerce of this part of America.

The same year a ship fitted out from London reached Long Island, sowed wheat there, as Gosnold had done at an island in Buzzards' Bay, and traded for furs with the Indians at Connecticut River, returning to London with a valuable cargo.

In the progress of these voyages arose a constantly increasing idea of the value of Virginia among the merchants of England. The coast claimed by England was found to extend through above eleven degrees of latitude, in a temperate climate, with noble rivers and harbors, and everywhere displaying a luxuriant fertility, and abundant material for supporting colonies, and establishing an enlarged trade. The waters were abundantly stored, the wealth of the forests was exhaustless; of furs, the means of supply seemed illimitable; and what variety of production would not the soil, so bountiful in its wild state, yield to regular cultivation? The drugs and spices of the East might be transplanted here, and thrive with all the aromatic virtues distilled in the oriental gardens; and as the idea of those times associated wealth of soil with subterraneous and all other riches, the hope of silver and gold and precious stones again revived.

Accordingly, in 1606, the two great associations of *adventurers* for trade and colonization, the North and South Virginia Companies, were formed—the latter composed of wealthy merchants belonging to the city of London, the foremost mercantile men of England, with some noblemen and gentlemen favorably disposed toward the profession, and not without practical interest therein. The other company was composed of the merchants less wealthy, but yet of most respectable means, belonging to Bristol, the third commercial city of England, Plymouth, and other towns of the west of England, with a proportion of estated gentlemen of high influence, similar to that of London. The charters provided that whatever was necessary to the sustenance or Commerce of the colonies to be established, should be *exported*

free from England during seven years, and as a farther encouragement, James granted them *liberty of trade with all nations*, and appropriated beforehand the revenues that might be collected in the colonial ports, by light duties and fines from foreign vessels and commodities, for twenty-one years, as a fund for the benefit of the colonies. They were allowed also to restrict their trade, if they chose, and to detain all ships trading at the colonies without their permission. The liberty of *coining money* for their own use was also granted. One-fifth of all the gold and silver found, and one-fifteenth of the copper were to go to the crown. Such were the principal commercial features of these remarkable charters, as liberal toward the colonies as they were illiberal in regard to their political condition, which was an abject dependence upon the crown and the companies, themselves but the creatures of the king, without any intervention of the parliament.

The North Virginia Company at once sent out a vessel of 55 tons,* with 29 persons, under Capt. Chalons, to form a settlement at the place visited by Pring and Weymouth. Chalons, going by way of the West Indies, was captured; and a second vessel which followed with supplies, under Pring, not finding the colony or any trace of it, returned after some farther explorations.

In December of the same year, sailed the first expedition of the South Virginia Company, consisting of 105 emigrants, mostly very poorly calculated for the enterprise, the naval conduct being confided to Capt. John Smith and Newport, who were accompanied also by Gosnold, the three being among the ablest seamen of the time. They proceeded by way of the Canaries and the West Indies, and being driven northwardly by a storm, entered the Chesapeake, and in April, 1607, founded JAMESTOWN. During the first year, their dependence for food was partly on the supplies sent from England, and partly on the trade with the Indians. Observing the straits of the colonists, the Indians, as in the case of the Huguenot colony in Florida, in 1564, raised the prices of provisions to an exorbitant amount—a step which might have proved fatal to the colonists but for the energy of John Smith, who undertook the regulation of the market, and by the awe which he infused into the Indians, succeeded in his effort. The Indian harvest that autumn was very plentiful, and as prosperity usually disposes all men toward good nature, the red provision dealers were content to carry on a fair traffic, and even to give something of their abundance to the poor colonists.

The same year, the Plymouth Company dispatched another expedition, which arrived and left 45 men on the coast of Maine, at the mouth of the Kennebec. According to Strackey, this colony built, during the year, “a faire pinnace of thirty tons,” called the “Virginia,” which was the first vessel built in New England, (*not the first within the United States*),† and was twenty-four years in advance of the “Blessing of the Bay,” built in the Massachusetts Bay colony in 1631, and often spoken of as *the first vessel constructed in the country*.‡

In 1608, the Sagadahock colony, (as that in Maine was called,) was broken up and returned to England—an issue which so discouraged the Northern Company, that there was long “no more speech” of renewing the

* The English had at this time but 40 vessels of over 50 tons burden

† See the third number of these articles.

‡ In 1607, Captain Hendrik Hudson sailed in the English service, in search of the northwest passage.

attempt in that quarter. Sir Francis Popham, the governor of the company, however, sent out some vessels to the same coast for fishing and the fur trade, upon his own account, and these adventures being still profitable, others followed. Thenceforward vessels from England annually visited the coasts of Maine and Massachusetts (particularly the former) for these objects, and it is stated by Mr. Sabine, that at least one vessel's crew wintered on the coast before Plymouth was settled.

In 1608, more emigrants arriving at Jamestown, and the company sending out word of their desire for gold, a mania was excited, and everybody's wits, but those of John Smith, seemed turned by the passion for the yellow metal. A ship was loaded with some "gilded dirt," as Smith called it, and carried to England, where it was again unloaded, at loss of the whole expense of those operations. This turn of employment tended to keep the colony yet longer dependent upon the intercourse with the Indians for the main part of their subsistence. While the fever was raging, Smith devoted himself to the service as hard, and far more useful, of exploring the Chesapeake and its tributary rivers. In two voyages, in an open boat, occupying three months of the summer, he navigated over 3,000 miles, passing far up the Susquehannah and the Potomac, and even penetrating the land. He had intercourse and effected treaties with many tribes, and, publishing his adventures under the title of his *Sixth Voyage to America*, gave to England the first full and accurate account, in fact the first real description of any sort, which she had, of the nature and capacities of any part of her American possessions.

Another object desired by the company, was the discovery of the South Sea, (as the Pacific was then called,) to which their patent extended westwardly. The narrow width of the continent at the explored parts of Mexico and Central America, was supposed to continue into the higher latitudes, and they hoped on the *other shore* of their possessions to find opulent Indian kingdoms, or to discover from these the much-sought passage between ocean and ocean; or, failing of that, to carry on from that coast a trade directly with India and China, or with the rich islands in the farther sea. Newport set out on the search for the desired coast, although Smith derided the project, and Powhatan refused guides for so wild an adventure as the search for *salt water beyond the mountains*. Newport reached the foot of the mountains, and returned; and we hear no more of the object, although it was long before the error on which it was founded was dissipated.

Among the persons sent over by the company to the colony at this time were goldsmiths, jewellers, &c., and beside these, there were others to teach the colonists the arts of making glass, tar, pitch, ashes, and other naval stores, from which, if not from gold, the company hoped a return for the money they had expended—a point upon which they were very urgent. Fearing neglect from the company, should they fail to attend to this important point, all hands were summoned to make up some sort of a cargo. Some specimens of tar were obtained; but the colony was too young and unprepared for the setting up of the manufactures in question, and the chief application was to the cutting of timber for boards and wainscots, at which hard employment even the *gentlemen* labored, affecting an amusement of the necessity. A cargo was soon made up of cedar and other woods, but its value was entirely beneath the elevated desires and expectations of the company, who continued spending without any prospect of present remuneration.

About this time the charter of De Muntz was revoked, in consequence of the remonstrances of the French merchants against it. He retained, however, a monopoly of the fur trade on the St. Lawrence, and sent out Champlain in 1608, who founded Quebec. Potrin-court, in 1607 or '8, carried to France some wheat and other products grown there, while the Virginia settlement was yet unable to feed itself.

In 1609, the South Virginia Company, not yet discouraged, though so much disappointed, endeavored to insure their end by reorganizing their plans. A new charter was obtained, the company was remodeled, their scheme was enlarged, and a new vigor infused into their efforts. Glowing accounts were published of the fertility, resource, and extent of Virginia, and an active enthusiasm was again excited. Among these publications was a pamphlet entitled "Nova Britaine offering most excellent fruits by planting in Virginia," which stated that *cotton* would grow as well in that province as in Italy. It would seem from this that some experiment had been made which promised success, but it was not followed up. In June, Newport sailed for the colony, with nine ships and over 500 emigrants, the largest colonizing expedition yet sent from England to America. The same year 50 or 60 houses were built, and the colony appeared to be thriving in agriculture and the fishery, and was gradually establishing some few manufactures.

In 1609, the Jesuits from Port Royal established a trading and fishing post and mission at Mount Desert Island, on the coast of Maine.

The same year, also, HENDRIK HUDSON, in the service of the Dutch East India Company, and in search of the northwest passage, for which object he had twice before sailed in the employ of London merchants, visited the coast of the United States in the "Vlie-boat" Half-moon, of 80 tons. Touching the American coast first at Newfoundland, he proceeded south, finding the French engaged in a very active trade at the St. Lawrence River. In passing Cape Cod, his men landed at several points and trafficked with the Indians. Discovering the noble river which bears his name, he ascended as high as Albany, trading along with the Indians, who came at first in great numbers, and exchanged maize and *tobacco* for knives and beads. An assault by the Indians interrupted this intercourse. Finding at Albany that there was no outlet in that direction, he returned.

In 1610, Smith having left Virginia, the hopes of the company, which had seemed about to be realized, were again disappointed, the colony being reduced by Indian war and famine in six months to 60 persons, who had actually embarked for Newfoundland, for the purpose of scattering themselves among the fishing vessels, when they met reinforcements and supplies in the river.

While the efforts of the English to establish commercial colonies in America had met with such poor success, their yearly adventures to Newfoundland, directed only with reference to the wealth of its waters, had from a much different result. It was estimated by Sir Wm. Monson, that from the discovery of that island by Cabot up to 1610, the fisheries there had furnished annually to England an average clear profit of £120,000, beside occasioning a large increase of shipping and of mariners, particularly in the western ports of England. A company was formed in 1610 by the merchants of London and Bristol for colonizing Newfoundland, and a settlement was planted.

Claiming the region discovered by Hudson, the Dutch East India Com-

pany in 1610, sent out a ship with merchandise for traffick with the Indians at Hudson River. By this voyage, the *fur trade* of the Dutch, so long and extensively pursued here, was opened, and to facilitate it, several stations (not a regular colony) were formed on Manhattan Island. Successful in this enterprise, the Dutch sent over more ships in the following years, and in a short time a lucrative trade was established.

Lord Delaware, the governor of Virginia, returning to England in 1611, the company seriously questioned him as to the prospects of their own remuneration from the colony. Delaware gave a decidedly favorable report, declaring it wonderfully fertile in corn and wine, and well adapted to rearing cattle, beside possessing much other resource. He declared his readiness to invest all his fortune in the colony. This report determined the company on further perseverance. The king soon after encouraged them by adding the Bermudas to Virginia, and by allowing them a lottery, which in ten years produced £29,000, and was called "the real food by which Virginia was nourished."

Up to this time the colony had been managed upon a *public stock* system, the labor of each man being appropriated by the general body, and each drawing his subsistence from the common result. This system was one of the most potent causes of the failure of remuneration to the company, as six or seven men, it was estimated, accomplished no more than one should have done under the individual system. The latter was, however, now gradually introduced, private property was soon completely established, liberal grants of land were made to the cultivators, and things soon began to wear a better aspect.

Meantime the voyages from England to the coast of North Virginia, or Norumbrega, as it was sometimes called, (New England,) for fishing and the fur trade, were continued.*

By 1613, it seems, the people of Virginia had extended their fishing voyages as far as the coast of Maine; for Capt. Argal, afterwards governor of Virginia, was wrecked this year at the Penobscot, while on such an expedition. Learning here of the French colony at Mount Desert, he was dispatched by the colonial authorities on his return, with a force of *eleven armed fishing vessels* belonging to the colony, to vindicate the claims of England to all that region. He broke up the settlement, and proceeding onward, reduced Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, (settled in 1605,) which, although a small colony, had prospered in the fur trade and the fishery, being all the while at peace with the Indians. On his return, he entered the Hudson, and compelled the Dutch traders there to acknowledge English sovereignty. Argal's adventure to America was like that of many other individuals of the colony, a commercial speculation. His partner in trade was the Earl of Warwick.

In 1613, an attempt was made to plant a second English colony in Newfoundland, by a new company, and the monopoly of the Greenland Whale fishery was given by the king to a Greenland Whaling Company, which,

* Pirates had for several years harassed and plundered the fishermen at Newfoundland, and in 1612, Peter Easton, a noted freebooter, made himself complete master of the seas in that region, and levied a general contribution on the vessels employed in fishing. From those found at Conception Bay, he impressed 100 men for his own fleet.

The same year, James Hall and William Baffin, from England, were in Baffin's Bay, in search of the northwest passage.

Canada, at this time, was involved in religious disputes, between the Calvinists and Catholics, which much injured the fur trade, the great object of settlement there. But more serious yet was the Indian war, which lasted from 1612 to 1620, greatly distressing the colony.

with seven armed ships, drove from the upper seas four private English ships and fifteen Dutch and French vessels, forcing some other French ships allowed to remain, to pay a tribute for the privilege.*

1614. A grant of exclusive Commerce for three years at the Hudson River, was made by the States-General of Holland to the "United New Netherlands Company." The company sent out a governor, built a fort, and pushed their trade up the river.

Capt. Smith, now entirely disconnected from the London company's colony, turned his attention earnestly toward *North Virginia*. In 1614, he persuaded four merchants of London to fit him out with two vessels, on a voyage of conjoined trade—fishery and exploration. The inert Plymouth Company offered no opposition. The whale fishery, which he first essayed, failed. But near Monhegan Island, on the coast of Maine, he caught, by boat fishing, 40,000 codfish, which he dried there on the shore, and 7,000 more were pickled. By traffick with the Indians, he collected also a large amount of martin, beaver, and other furs—his whole cargo being valued at about £1,500, which rendered it a very successful voyage for those times. Leaving the rest employed in this business, he landed with eight men and proceeded into the interior, after which he explored the coast from the Penobscot to Cape Cod, making a map of the region, and naming the country, as expressive of its value, NEW ENGLAND. While thus engaged, Thomas Hunt, left in charge of the other ships, inveigled thirty Indians on board, and, proceeding to Malaga, sold them as slaves—a step which caused the sacrifice of Capt. Hobson and several of the crew of the vessel which next visited that part of the coast. On his return, Smith published a full account of his voyage, highly eulogizing New England, and describing it as immensely more valuable for the fishery than Newfoundland. Here, he says, "there is victual to feed us; wood of all sorts to build boats, ships, or barges; the fish at our doors; pitch, tar, masts, and yards." Crews sharing £6 or £7 a piece yearly at Newfoundland, would divide £14 in New England. He regarded New England, indeed, as superior to any other uninhabited place that he had ever seen.

Awakened by Smith's efforts, the Plymouth Company made another effort to colonize their domain, sending Smith with two vessels and *fifteen* emigrants. He was driven back by a storm, sailed again with one vessel, was taken by a French pirate, and carried into Rochelle; and the Plymouth Company sunk into its old apathy.

In 1615 the New Netherlands Company widened greatly the relations of their settlement, (numbering thirty souls,) and extended their Commerce by a treaty with the Five Nations occupying the upper country, the tribes which were at war with the French in Canada. This treaty was never broken while the Dutch remained in possession of their settlements here. Extending their posts up the river, the Dutch now built a fort at Albany, (called Fort Orange,) and at about the same time formed a station at the mouth of Connecticut River. Their trade, confined mainly to the exchange of European goods of small value for fine furs and skins, had become of great importance.†

* Commerce of England in 1613—Imports, £2,141,151; exports, £2,090,640; customs on exports, £86,795; merchants' gains, estimated, £300,000.

† In 1615, the English had 250 vessels at Newfoundland, and sent a commissioner with judicial powers to settle disputes and preserve order among the fishermen and colonists. The English fishery was flourishing, and the product was sent to nearly all parts of Europe.

The late voyage of Smith to New England occasioned the sending, in 1616, of four ships from London and two from Bristol to the coast of Maine, for fish and oil. The whole six obtained full fares near the Island of Monhegnor, which became a noted fishing station, and, carrying their cargoes to Spain and the Canary Islands, (afterwards valuable markets of New England,) obtained high prices and made excellent voyages.

In 1616, Raleigh, after having suffered twelve years' confinement, on conviction of an alledged conspiracy to dethrone James I., was released, and, unable to abandon America, was granted a charter by the king, authorizing him to visit any uninhabited parts of that continent, in order "to discover some commodities necessary and profitable for the subjects of these our kingdoms." One-fifth the precious metals and stones to go to the king.*

Tobacco comes this this year first into notice as a product of Virginia, although before cultivated. It had now become an article of export, and was planted even in the public ways of Jamestown. It had been found more profitable than any other article of culture or manufacture which had been essayed. After the failure of the earnest attempts to find gold and to establish different manufactures, the wished-for source of profit appeared in an unexpected quarter—"a dingy weed of pungent taste and odor," offensive on first use, and, in fact, an actual poison, and attended always with most "disagreeable accompaniments," found "on the wild meadows and riverbanks." The Spaniards had proved the singular attractions of this weed, and others had caught a relish from them. The colonists in Virginia had tried its power upon themselves, and now were to reward the effort and expenditure of their proprietary company, by converting Great Britain into a nation of tobacco chewers and smokers, holding in their hands the monopoly of supply. The taste in Great Britain had not, however, to be entirely created at this time, as some had been brought home in the early expeditions of Raleigh, &c., and much had been taken in the Spanish vessels captured by the English, and much of late was brought in the way of direct trade from the Spanish West Indies. As early, indeed, as 1603, his first year, James had issued a document—*Commissio pro Tobacco*—enacting, that whereas this drug, brought in before in small quantities, and used only as a physic by the better sort, had now become "excessively taken by a number of riotous and disorderly persons of mean and base condition," the heavy duty of 6s. 8d. per pound should be added to the previous duty upon import of 2d. per pound.

The charter of the New Netherlands Company expiring in 1617, three years now followed, in which the trade of the Hudson River was disposed of by special licenses to individuals.

Raleigh returned from his voyage in 1618, having found no gold, whereupon, in revenge upon himself of his ill success, conjoined with the craven desire of pleasing the king of Spain, some of whose American possessions Raleigh had visited during the voyage, that contemptible monarch, James the First, a most unworthy successor to the strong-minded Elizabeth, who had ever been the friend of Raleigh—approached as far toward infamy as so feeble a nature could, by causing the execution of the noble, and now venerable adventurer, upon the old pretense, referring to events which the lapse of fourteen years had rendered oblivious to the memory of men. So perished a man who did more to direct the enterprise of England toward the United States than any other person of his own or any preceding age, and whose energy

* Baffin, in 1616, again in search of the northwest passage. He sailed as high as 78 degrees N. Le Maire and Schouten discovered Cape Horn.

and devotion to the great object of his life are now, and forever will be, read of with admiration by the millions of the country he vainly endeavored to colonize; while James will be known only as one of "mean and base condition" of mind, to whom the accident of birth degraded a high office, and whose only credit therein is that he was both preceded and followed by men as unworthy of the coronet as himself.

Tobacco had become so extensively cultivated in Virginia, that the British market was overstocked, and the price had in consequence become greatly reduced. The import into England (whither all but that retained for home use was sent) from Virginia, in 1619, was 20,000 pounds, or 180 cwt., a very large quantity for so small a colony, equal to about 33 lbs. per head to the whole population, but a small amount it would seem now to have produced such an effect upon the British market. The use of tobacco was, plainly, yet quite limited.

To remedy the evil of the diminished price, Argal, the governor of Virginia, undertook to enforce a higher rate in the province by statute; James, at the same time, turned his attention toward the colony and its product, and issued a series of regulative measures. He prohibited the sale of tobacco in Great Britain and Ireland without the royal seal to show that the duty had been paid, and an exorbitant valuation was made, that the impost of 5d. a pound might be made to yield 6d. He ordered, further, in order to curtail the production, that there should not be raised above 100 lbs. to each planter in Virginia, and advised them to turn to corn and cattle, and the making of potash and other manufactures. He totally forbid the planting of tobacco in Great Britain, the only act in the series calculated to be of any benefit to the colony. He provided also for the "garbling of tobacco," the good to be separated from the bad, arbitrarily, by judges in England. In the same year, 1619, he issued also his "Counterblast against Tobacco;" but his statutory regulations affected the interests of the planters far more than his *literary* effusions. Finally, he attempted a monopoly of the sale in Great Britain, assuming a pre-emption of the whole import at the uniform low price of 3s. the pound, and reselling it at a large advance to the merchants. He did not succeed, however, in the full enforcement of the monopoly; and, under all these vexatious regulations, the production of tobacco in Virginia continued to increase.

In twelve years, the Virginia Company had expended £80,000 upon this colony, which had yet but 600 inhabitants, and most of the planters designed an ultimate return to England. To remove the unfavorable impressions regarding the colony, the company, in 1619, published a statement describing the richness of Virginia in "all God's natural blessings." It had admirable iron; the finest timber in the world; was capable of yielding, in perfection, tar, pitch, pot and pearl ashes, &c. The main hope, however, was in *silk*, in the production of which Virginia could equal Persia and Italy. And though the attempts, both in silk and wine, had hitherto failed, they would be renewed with ampler means, skill, and care. In regard to tobacco, the odium resting upon it made them silent. To compensate proprietors for want of dividends, and to encourage capital and settlers, it was voted for every £12 10s. of stock subscribed, to grant 100 acres of land, and on its occupation, another hundred. To every emigrant going out at his own expense, fifty acres, on which, after seven years, he should pay a quit-rent of twelve pence. Very advantageous patents were granted to those who undertook to convey emigrants. By these encouragements, and great

efforts on their own part, the company sent over in 1619, twelve ships with 1,261 persons, including 90 females. They arrived in 1620, and the females were sold to the planters for wives at 120 lbs. of tobacco each. The colony now began in reality to prosper. They were, meantime, at perfect peace with the Indians, the company proceeding upon the just and wise principle of occupying no land except by previous purchase of the natives.

In 1619, Captains Darmer and Pocraft, the former having sailed with Smith to New England in 1614, were sent out by Sir Ferdinando Gorges and other members of the Plymouth Company, and carried on the fishery at Maine successfully, besides exploring much of the coast to the southward.

In 1620, the company sent out 800 more emigrants to Virginia. In August, a Dutch man-of-war entered James River, and landed *twenty negroes* for sale, which was the beginning of negro slavery and the slave-trade in the English colonies, although the English had themselves long been engaged in the trade between Africa and the Spanish colonies.

An English company this year introduced tobacco from England into Germany, and thus enlarged the market for Virginia.

In 1620, the Dutch founded Schenectady, sixteen miles northwest of Albany, on the Mohawk River, as a trading post, penetrating thus, for the sake of their trade, far inland, while yet very weak in point of numbers.

Smith, upon escaping from Rochelle, returned to England, and strained every nerve to carry out his project of establishing fishing and trading colonies in New England. He published this year his third or fourth work on New England, treating therein of the "suesse of twenty-six ships employed in fishing there within these six yeares." He circulated 7,000 copies of his books and maps at great expense, and traveled from city to city, applying to every man of influence from whom he thought there was anything to be hoped. He complains that he might as well have attempted to "cut rocks with oyster shells." The general apathy seemed invincible—beside, he was regarded as an unlucky man—the worst reputation a man bent on such an enterprise could incur. A most unfair contrast was drawn between the Virginia colony when struggling for existence under his guidance, which alone saved it repeatedly from extinction, and in its present prosperous state, when, as Murray says, "the planters were living in ease and luxury on the juice of the tobacco."

At length his efforts succeeded in arousing the old Plymouth Company again, and the idea was entertained of colonization upon a grand scale—rivaling or excelling the settlement in Virginia. A new charter was obtained, granting to the "Council of Plymouth," as the company was now called, absolute property, with the *exclusive right of settlement, trade, and fishery*, in all lands between 40° and 48° N., and bounded east and west by the two oceans.

This grant, the extent of which could not then be comprehended, embraced New England, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Quebec, and the greater part of the Canadas, (including all the French settlements in this part of North America,) New York, with all the Dutch claim therein, and Pennsylvania. Westward, the southern boundary line runs through the middle of the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and the Indian territory, and includes the northern part of California. The northern limit, passing through Lake Superior, passes thence to the Pacific at about one degree below the

present boundary of the United States. The area thus conveyed, with all its resource and Commerce, exceeds 1,400,000 square miles.

The Council of Plymouth appointed Capt. Smith admiral for life, but the office was the occasion of little service from him, as both he and the company were doomed to more disappointment. A fatality seemed to attend all the efforts made by the Plymouth Company under whatever of its phases. The Council having obtained its charter, and having no obstacle in the way to hinder it from proceeding directly to the accomplishment of its object, laid an inhibition on its own enterprise. For the achievement of the great results which all aimed at and hoped for, a variety of opinion arose as to the means and mode best calculated to the end. Obstinate adhering to their varying ideas, a sharp collision of projects followed, and the division neutralized the executive vigor of the company so that it was unable to take an effective step in any direction. Emigrants would not venture under their auspices; they remained as impotent as before the grand reorganization was effected; and but for a movement in another quarter, of a very different nature, New England might have remained long without a white population, and with no more commercial importance than was afforded by the few annual fishing and trading voyages to its coasts.

Art. III.—JAMES GORE KING.

THE Chamber of Commerce of New York, at a special meeting, held on Wednesday, 5th October, in order to express their sense of the great public loss sustained in the death of JAMES GORE KING, adopted the following among other resolutions:—

Resolved, That the Chamber do declare their sense of the great intelligence and high moral worth of the deceased; of his strictest integrity and honor; of his great public spirit; of his general usefulness; of his liberal Christian charities, and of the high tone and elevation of his manly nature.

Resolved, That the Chamber have no higher example than the character and career of their late associate, to point out to the admiration and imitation of the rising members of the mercantile community.

Of him thus commemorated by his associates—and in the spirit of the second resolution, which holds him up as an example to those who are coming forward on the scene which he so long adorned—it is proposed to present a faithful memoir, which cannot, it is believed, be without interest or encouragement, especially to the young.

James Gore King was the third son of Rufus King and Mary Alsop his wife. He was born in the city of New York, on the 8th of May, 1791, at the residence of his grandfather, John Alsop, No. 38 Smith-street, afterward known as 62 William-street.

When just turned of five years of age he was taken, with the rest of the family, to England, to which country Mr. Rufus King was appointed Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary by Washington, in 1796.

Before he had reached his seventh year he was placed with Mr. Brown, who kept a select boarding-school of high reputation at Kensington Gravel

Pits, near London, and there he remained, making satisfactory progress, until 1801, when, for the benefit of acquiring the French language, James was sent over to Paris to the care of the late Daniel Parker, an old friend of Mr. R. King, and long a resident in that city. Mr. Parker sent him to a school of high repute in Paris, where he soon acquired a thorough knowledge and mastery of the language, while prosecuting other studies.

In 1803, when Chancellor Livingston, then American minister in Paris, was about returning home, he took with him our young student, in order that, in conformity with the well-considered views of his father as to the importance of a youth receiving his education, in part at least, in the country and among the people where and with whom he was to live, he might finish his studies at home.

After a short interval passed with his parents in this city, James was confided to the care of the Rev. Dr. Gardiner, Rector of Trinity Church, Boston, who received him with some few other private pupils into his house, and fitted them for Harvard University. Into the University accordingly, of which his father was a graduate, he entered in 1806, and graduated from it with honor in 1810.

He commenced almost immediately the study of law as his future profession, with the venerable Peter Van Schaick, of Kinderhook, then old and nearly blind, but to whom, as to Milton—

"The celestial light
Shone inward, and the mind thro' all her powers
Irradiated."

Mr. Van Schaick was an old-fashioned, black-letter lawyer, loving his profession, and adorning it by an upright life, and by sound and varied scholarship. Under his teaching and his example, our young student acquired that thoroughness which in all things characterized his after life. With the superficial he was never content to rest satisfied. This habit he owed not a little to Mr. Van Schaick, of whom he always spoke with great regard and reverence. After some months spent under the roof of Mr. Van Schaick, James went to the law-school at Litchfield, then in its brightest estate, and under the instruction of Tappan Reeve and Judge Gould completed his elementary education as a lawyer.

Returning home to New York, and thrown by family association into the society of the late Arch. Gracie and his household, in February, 1812, he married Sarah, the second daughter of Mr. Gracie, and from that time was led to turn his attention rather to Commerce than the law as a profession. The war, however, which soon followed, left little opportunity for Commerce, and he was fain to wait for peace before entering into business. In the summer of 1814, when a very large militia force was called out by the general government and stationed in this city, Mr. J. King was selected as his Assistant Adjutant General by Major General Ebenezer Stevens, who commanded in chief the whole militia contingent, in subordination to the general officer of the United States army, to whom was assigned the command of the military district, and especially the defence of the city of New York. Mr. King entered with characteristic method, intelligence, and ardor upon this before untried field of duty, and he acquitted himself most abundantly to the satisfaction of his commander, and with general acceptance to all with whom he was brought into official relation. The troops were disbanded at the commencement of the winter of 1814-15, and with the peace which was concluded at Ghent in December, 1814, closed his military service.

In the year 1815 he established, under the firm of James G. King & Co., a commission house in this city, in connection and partnership with his father-in-law Arch. Gracie, and Mr. Walker, of Petersburg, Va., an old partner of Mr. Gracie, and was measureably successful in business. In the year 1818, however, upon the recommendation of his father-in-law, Mr. Gracie, he broke up his business in this city and went to Liverpool, and there, with his brother-in-law, Archibald Gracie, established the house of King & Gracie.

During a residence of nearly six years in this chief of English seaports, with a large business, and encountering heavy responsibilities, Mr. K. so skillfully steered his bark, that in despite of the wide-spread calamities which both in England and America marked the years 1822, '23, '24, and which overwhelmed his own nearest and dearest connections in this country, he maintained his own high character, fulfilled all the responsibilities of his house, and on leaving England in 1824, in compliance with advantageous arrangements made for his future residence in New York, left behind him an enviable name and reputation for urbanity, intelligence, promptness and integrity. He made many fast and valuable friends while abroad, and retained their good will and confidence unabated to the day of his death.

While in Liverpool he was brought into relations of business and much personal intimacy with the late *John Jacob Astor*, who was on a brief visit to Europe; and such was the impression made upon that sagacious observer and almost unerring judge of character, by the business tact and promptness of Mr. King and his general character, that, upon his return to the United States, Mr. Astor invited him to come to New York, and take the chief direction of the American Fur Company, with a very liberal salary. The offer was a tempting one, and made at a time when, owing to the mercantile disasters already alluded to, the prospects of Mr. King's house in Liverpool were not very promising. But the business to which he was invited was wholly new to him, and moreover it was in his character to prefer an independent position—though it might be less lucrative—to any however advantageous of which the tenure was at the pleasure of others. Mr. King therefore declined, but with such expression of his sense of the liberal kindness of Mr. Astor as was both natural and fitting; and Mr. Astor continued his fast friend always, and had another occasion of proving his friendship about the close of 1823. Consulted by Mr. Prime, then at the head of the house of Prime, Ward, Sands & Co., as to his knowledge of some fitting person upon whom Mr. Prime might safely devolve a portion of the business of his prosperous house, Mr. Astor at once suggested the name of James G. King, and accompanied it with such eulogies as to determine Mr. Prime, who it seems, from some business intercourse between their houses, had himself thought of Mr. King, to invite him to become a partner in his house.

This proposal Mr. King took into serious consideration, but with his habitual directness and prudence, determined upon a personal interview with Mr. Prime and the other partners of the house before accepting it. Mr. King accordingly made a visit to New York in 1823, and having satisfied himself of the expediency of accepting Mr. Prime's proposals, he returned to Liverpool, wound up the affairs of the house there, came back to New York, and on the 1st of May, 1824, became a partner of the house of Prime, Ward, Sands, King & Co., which then consisted of Nathaniel Prime, Samuel Ward, Joseph Sands, J. G. King, and Robert Ray.

The thorough business habits which Mr. King brought with him, and the

confidence with which his character had inspired some of the leading commercial houses both in England and on the continent, could not fail, and did not, in enlarging at once and methodizing the business of the house in which he had become a partner. Capable of great and sustained application, clear and prompt in his language and in his transactions, and tempted never, by any prospect of advantage, however dazzling, from the prescribed line of business in which he was engaged, he very soon created for himself a position and an influence among the merchants of our city and country, which endured to the end. Prosperity rewarded his labors. In 1826 the death of Mr. Sands caused a dissolution of the firm, which was reconstituted under the name of Prime, Ward, King & Co., consisting of all the surviving partners of the firm, with the addition of Mr. Edward Prime, eldest son of the senior partner.

Pursuing the even tenor of his way, as the most active member of this house—for Mr. Prime was already partially withdrawing himself, and actually retired in 1831, and Mr. Ward, who had been a hard worker, now willingly relinquished the laboring oar to his younger associate—Mr. King gave himself heartily to business, and found himself richly rewarded by success, and by the general regard and confidence of his associates and fellow citizens of all classes. He did not, however, permit business so to engross his time or heart as to be inaccessible to the charms of society, the claims of benevolence or the duties of a patriot citizen. Dispensing always a liberal hospitality, and enjoying, and himself greatly contributing by his varied knowledge and conversational talent to, the pleasure of refined society, his ear and his hand were ever open to the cry of misery, and his charities were ready, unostentatious and discriminating.

Although averse to political life, he nevertheless deemed it a duty, obligatory on every man, to take such part and interest in public affairs as becomes every citizen of a free representative republic. Especially on all questions connected with the Commerce and finances of the country did he keep himself well informed, and prepared always to unite with his fellow citizens in any measures which he deemed conducive to the general welfare.

In the year 1834, two years after he had removed his residence to the opposite shore of the Hudson in New Jersey, he was urged to allow himself to be presented as a candidate for Congress from New York, and consenting thereto he returned to the city, and established himself in Bleeker-street, to the end that, if elected, no technical objection might arise as to residence. Although sustained by a very large vote, and especially by a very gratifying exhibition of zeal on the part of the merchants of the city, not easily aroused to political activity, he failed of an election, and in the ensuing spring returned once more and finally to his New Jersey Home, coming, however, daily to his business in town.

About this period it was that he became warmly interested in the success of the great undertaking then all but hopeless, so great was the indifference of the public to its claims, and so general the distrust of its feasibility—the New York and Erie Railroad.

After well considering the subject, and satisfying himself both of the practicability and the advantages of such a road, in 1835 he consented to accept the presidency of the company—declining however to receive any salary. A new subscription was started, with gratifying success. Mr. King in the summer of that year visited and inspected the whole line of the road, new surveys were made, and a considerable portion of the road along the Dela-

ware was put under contract, and in the following year, 1836, the Legislature of the State, moved thereto in no slight degree by the high character of Mr. King, under whose management it was felt that whatever aid might be appropriated by the State would be faithfully applied, granted to the company the credit of the State to the amount of *three millions of dollars*. The pecuniary difficulties which were then disturbing the country rendered it impossible to avail of this credit upon terms at all suitable to the character of the State or of the enterprise, and Mr. King, finding his time too much diverted by the duties of the presidency from the business of his house, resigned the office in 1837. Entering upon it as he did wholly upon public grounds, and from public considerations, and declining all compensation for his services, he was seconded in his disinterested course by the directors of the company, who upon his suggestion adopted a by-law, that no director should have any pecuniary interest in any contract, nor in any property along the line of the road, thus giving to the public the surest guaranty, that no selfish ends were to be subserved by any of its arrangements. It is not perhaps too much to assume that although the ultimate success and completion of the road were brought about by other and able hands, the impulse given to it by Mr. King as president in its first period of doubt and danger, assured its existence and its accomplishment.

In the year 1832 Mr. King had removed his residence to the heights of Weehawken, on the Hudson River, opposite to our city, where he had previously bought some fifty acres of land and built a substantial house. The beauty of the spot, rough and unimproved as it was when he purchased, its fine natural forest, and its great capabilities, gave ample employment to his taste and to his means, yet never tempted him into hasty, excessive, or other than gradual and measured outlay and improvement. And to those who have ever been exposed at all to the fascination of embellishing a rural home and with means in hand, have realized the difficulty of holding back, and of going only step by step and little by little, this remark will afford a sure test of the calm and sober judgment by which Mr. K. was habitually governed. The late Lord Ashburton, when walking round the grounds with Mr. K., and listening to his description of what he had done and how long he had been doing it, and of what yet might be done and the time it would require to accomplish it, said to him—"Half the failures of eminent London merchants have been occasioned by the ambition to have a fine place, and by undue, excessive, and hasty expenditure thereon; but I see, by the manner in which you have gone about your improvements, that you are in no danger from that source." Lord Ashburton was perfectly right. Mr. K. was of too steady a temper and too disciplined habits ever to suffer himself to run into excess in the gratification of taste, or the indulgence of that refined selfishness, if so it must be called, which delights in embellishing Home.

Becoming thus by permanent residence a citizen of New Jersey, he declined none of the duties consequent upon the relation; whether serving as grand juror, or aiding in the encouragement of schools, or contributing to the creation and support of his village church, or actively participating in the deliberations and researches of the New Jersey Historical Society, he approved himself a worthy citizen of the State. As an agriculturist, too, he took pains to introduce the finest cattle, while as a gardener, he was both earnest and successful in naturalizing and cultivating the finest varieties of fruits and flowers.

Loving and enjoying as Mr. K. did country life, he nevertheless was regular and attentive as ever in the important concerns of his business. By the retiring or death of the older partners of the house and the introduction of younger members, sons of those old partners or his own, Mr. K. had become the head of the house, and its chief responsibilities and direction rested upon him, and they found him always ready and steady. As prosperity never unduly elated him, nor tempted him beyond the line of prudence and of safety, so when adverse affairs alarmed others he retained his equanimity; and steering his own course skillfully and confidently in every tempest, he not only afforded an example and encouragement to others tossed by the same storm, but was enabled to save from shipwreck some that but for timely aid must have gone down.

Hence, therefore, when the year 1837 with its sweeping commercial disasters shook others from their propriety, Mr. King looked on, not unmoved, certainly, for the sympathies of his nature were generous, but without being at all disconcerted, and with the calm self-reliance of one who had measured the whole case, and knew the extent, the applicability, and the adequacy of the resources that could be availed of to meet it. His voice, therefore, his countenance, his counsel were cheerful and full of hope when clouds seemed heaviest, and his hand was stretched forth to sustain. It was a time, nevertheless, to try men's nerves, as well as credit.

Failures of largely extended houses, commencing at New Orleans, spread throughout the land. New York had its full proportion. In London, too, several houses, chiefly connected with the Commerce of the United States, were brought to a stand. The Bank of England set its face against a further extension of credit, and this policy re-acted with great intensity in New York.

The seasons, too, had been unfavorable to agriculture, and, for the first time in our history as a nation, even wheat was imported from abroad for our own consumption. Nearly a million and a half bushels of wheat were brought from Europe into New York in the course of the spring of 1837. The banks almost everywhere had imprudently increased their loans, the federal government, with its specie circular, aggravated the evil, and universal bankruptcy seemed impending. The State of New York, for a loan not exceeding half a million of dollars, at 6 per cent interest, publicly advertised, received not a bid.

Mr. King was too sagacious not to perceive alike the magnitude and the extent of the danger; but he also saw and knew that mutual aid and co-operation would mitigate, if they could not control, the impending storm. He sought earnestly and anxiously to avert especially the loss and the disgrace of a suspension of specie payments in a time of universal peace, and when no scourge of pestilence or famine was at hand to paralyze industry or to extenuate voluntary insolvency. But the concurrence of causes pecuniary and political—which, however, it is no part of this memoir to discuss, or further to notice—overbore all individual efforts and opinions. The banks of the city of New York, after a long and honest struggle, came to the conclusion that a suspension of specie payments was unavoidable, and indeed indispensable, in order to avert the necessity of further sacrifice of property by the struggling merchants in the effort to meet their engagements.

Accordingly, after deliberate consultation among the officers and directors of the banks, on Wednesday, 10th of May, the following notice was issued:—

"NOTICE TO THE PUBLIC IN RELATION TO THE BANKS.

"At a meeting last evening of all the banks in this city, except three, it was

Resolved, That, under existing circumstances, it is expedient and necessary to suspend payments in specie.

In the mean time the notes of all the banks will be received at the different banks as usual in payment of debts and in deposits; and as the indebtedness of the community to the banks exceeds three times the amount of their liabilities to the public, it is hoped and expected that the notes of the different banks will pass current as usual, and that the state of the times will soon be such as to render the resumption of specie payments practicable."

The Manhattan and Merchants' Bank and the Bank of America, the three dissenting at the meeting on the previous evening, and hoping, perhaps, still to sustain their specie payments, were borne away the next day, and fell in with the rest.

The merchants and traders of the city met the same day at the Exchange, in pursuance of a call numerously signed by leading men of all pursuits and parties; and to an overflowing meeting Mr. James G. King presented himself, and after reading the call, enforced its objects with great power and effect. He inculcated "the necessity of mutual aid and forbearance," as we find him reported in the journals of the day, "and that all should put their shoulder to the wheel, without looking back now to the causes of our calamities, though a time to examine into and proclaim these causes would surely come. He said it was with deep humiliation as a merchant that he witnessed this hour; and it was only in the belief that the suspension of specie payments by the banks would be temporary, and in the conviction that in order to hasten the period of resumption the co-operation of all was required, to sustain the credit of the bills of the banks, that he had consented to present himself to the meeting." He concluded by moving the following resolutions, which were seconded by Mr. N. Prime, and adopted:—

"*Resolved*," (after reciting the resolution of the banks just given,) "That, relying upon the above statement, we have full confidence in the ultimate ability of the banks of this city to redeem all their bills and notes, and that we will ourselves continue to receive, and we recommend all our fellow-citizens to receive them as heretofore.

That in an emergency like the present, it is alike the dictate of patriotism and self-interest to abstain from all measures tending to aggravate existing evils, and by mutual forbearance and mutual aid to mitigate as far as practicable the existing difficulties, and thus most essentially to assist in the restoration of specie payments."

These resolutions were put separately, and each was unanimously adopted. The sanction thus given by all the leading men of business to an *accomplished fact* produced an instantaneous effect; a sense of relief was felt, as if a heavy pressure were removed. Stocks and other securities rose in price, and business became more active.

It is a coincidence which at the time was gratifying to Mr. King, and in the retrospect is now not less gratifying to his family, that on occasion of suspending specie payments by the banks in 1812-13, during the war with England, Mr. Rufus King was called from his retirement on Long Island to urge the same views as those presented by his son in 1837, and that in each case the speaker carried his hearers and the country with him. In 1812-13, however, New York only followed; in 1837 it was her hard and humiliating

fortune to lead the way in suspension; and her example swept away, as the news of it sped, the banking institutions East, North, South, and West. The Pennsylvania Bank of the United States, which had succeeded the National Bank destroyed by President Jackson, was obliged to yield with the other banks of Pennsylvania, and closed its vaults on the day after the suspension in New York.

Throughout the summer of 1837, Mr. King, with others of like views, was earnest in preparing measures for the speediest possible return to specie payments. Disasters, however, thickened around—the failure in London of three of the largest houses interested in the American trade—followed as this unavoidably was by failures in the United States—and the return of a large amount of sterling bills drawn on those houses, added to the general consternation, and of course to the obstacles of a speedy redemption. Mr. King, however, never lost his self-possession, nor confidence in the opinion, and in the expression of it, that the banks and the general mercantile community *had* ample means and an honest purpose to meet, ultimately, all their engagements. Under such impressions, both with a view to inspire on the other side confidence in such a result, and to judge for himself of the actual condition of money affairs there, he embarked in the month of October for England. He was warmly received and eagerly consulted by bankers and merchants in London; and did not fail, by his calm and assured tone and judgment about the means and responsibilities of his own countrymen, to allay much of the apprehension which panic and ignorance of the extent of resources possessed by our commercial community and banks, had produced.

When he had accomplished thus much, he went further, and undertook to show to the leading capitalists and to the Bank of England, that in their own interest, if from no other view, they should aid the Americans struggling to extricate themselves from embarrassments, and to return to specie payments. He startled the bank parlor in Threadneedle-street by a suggestion, that instead of embarrassing American merchants by discrediting, as they had been doing, paper connected with the American trade, it nearly concerned the solvency of many of their own customers, and consequently their own interests, that liberal aid should rather be extended to that trade. Again and again invited to consult with the bank authorities as to measures fit to be taken in the crisis, he finally brought them over to his views, and gave practical scope to those views, by proposing that the bank should at once send over to New York several million dollars in coin, in order to strengthen the banks in America, and to make their redemption more easy and early. Regularly advised from home of the systematic measures in progress there for bank resumption, and made aware that timidity rather than want of actual means withheld the banks of the city of New York from an immediate return to specie payments, he himself saw clearly, and proved to the Governors of the Bank of England, that at such a juncture a supply of coin from that institution would at once determine the New York banks in their right course, and render it both easy and permanent.

In conformity with these opinions of Mr. King, the Bank of England resolved to confide to his house the consignment of one million pounds sterling in gold, upon the sole responsibility of that house and the guaranty of Baring, Brothers & Co. The object and the terms of that important movement are stated in the letter, of which a copy is subjoined, addressed by the Governor of the Bank of England, W. Curtis, to Mr. King:—

BANK OF ENGLAND, March 20, 1838.

SIR:—I have to acknowledge your favor of yesterday's date, and to express my concurrence in its contents in respect to the consignment of gold coin or bullion and the returns for the same. Messrs. Baring, Brothers & Co. have also addressed me guarantying the transaction and the payment of the bills of exchange which may be remitted.

In reply to your observation as to the latitude it may be expedient to give in the time for making these returns, I beg to say that it is not at all the intention of the bank that any undue haste should be exhibited in taking bills of exchange for remittance. I am quite aware that any such action on the exchange at New York would tend unnecessarily to raise premiums on bills. The object of the bank in the operation is not one of profit—the whole transaction is one out of the ordinary course of its operations. Profit, therefore, is not what the bank seeks; but by a judicious course of proceeding, the bank may be saved from loss; and it is fairly entitled to a moderate rate of interest, if the progress of the transaction will admit of it.

I deem it inexpedient to fix any precise period within which the returns should be made. Having shown your house so much confidence in intrusting the management of this great concern in their hands, it would but ill agree with that confidence if I were to prescribe limits which might, in many ways, act most inconveniently, and deprive the bank of the advantage of your judgment and experience, in both of which I hope to find a satisfactory result to this important undertaking.

Wishing you a safe voyage, I have the honor to be, sir, your very obedient servant,

T. A. CURTIS, Governor.

JAMES GORE KING, Esq.,
Partner of the house of Messrs. Prime, Ward & King,
of New York, now in London.

The first shipment of 80,000 sovereigns was made by the bank the next day, per packet ship *Gladiator*, and Mr. King himself soon followed, with a much larger sum. The solicitude of Mr. King to hasten resumption by the banks of New York and throughout the United States, which has been already dwelt upon, lay at the bottom of this great operation, and he was naturally and reasonably elated at his success. He thus announced the transaction to his friend, S. B. Ruggles, Esq., then at Albany as one of the members of Assembly from this city:—

LONDON, March 15, 1838.

"I hasten to apprise you that I have concluded an arrangement on the part of Baring, Brothers & Co., and Prime, Ward & King, with the Bank of England, for the shipment of ONE MILLION OF SOVEREIGNS, (in gold of course,) by the four or five ships for New York from London and Liverpool, and I hope and trust that upon their arrival, our banks and those of the Atlantic cities will resume and maintain specie payments, towards which result my thoughts and efforts have been unceasingly devoted. The service which I have thus had the opportunity to render my own city and State by aiding it, in taking the initiative in this great and wholesome measure, affords me a satisfaction in which I know that you and my other friends will fully participate. The arrangement was only concluded definitely this morning, but I communicate it with all dispatch."

The anticipation of Mr. King that with the aid thus opportunely and fortunately brought to them, the banks of New York would resume and maintain specie payment was abundantly realized. Already, in despite of a convention of delegates from the banks of New England, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, who formally declared the resumption could not yet safely be attempted, in despite of the absolute refusal of the banks of Pennsylvania to come into the measure, the banks of New York had re-

solved that on or before the 10th of May *they would resume*, and the whole business community of the city resolved to stand by the banks in this honest determination. The work was accomplished by the vote that it should be done. The legislature authorized the emission of small notes. They also created some four millions of stocks for canal purposes, for which the banks, by special act, were permitted to subscribe, so as to obtain an available resource for the purchase of coin in England, if needed; and almost without an effort, and absolutely without any shock, the reign of irredeemable paper was terminated: first, by the issue of small notes and their redemption in coin whenever asked, and then by a full resumption which was complete weeks before the specified day of May.

As the coin from the Bank of England arrived, it was disposed of on easy terms to the banks here and in Boston—a large sum offered to the Bank of the United States of Pennsylvania at first declined, was afterwards availed of—and thus the city of New York, which had seen itself compelled to lead the way in suspension, had the great honor and satisfaction to lead the way itself in resumption, and to smooth the way for others.

The signal confidence reposed by the Bank of England in the house of Prime, Ward & King in this important transaction, was fully justified by the event, as were the sagacious provisions of Mr. King, as to the good results to be effected by such a use of the Bank's treasure.

It is satisfactory to be able to add that a concern of so large import—entered into not without high motives on the part of the Bank of England and conducted with equal skill and fidelity by the New York house—was wound up without loss and with great promptness.

In the autumn of the year 1839 Samuel Ward died, but the partnership, according to its tenor, was continued; the eldest son of Mr. Ward and the son-in-law of Mr. King, Mr. Deming Duer, having been admitted as partners in the previous month of May.

The business of the house went on in its steady, regular, and as to profits, progressive course. In 1844, A. Gracie King, son of Jas. G. King, became a partner, and the house then consisted of J. G. King, Edward Prime, Sam. Ward, Deming Duer, and A. Gracie King. A diversity of views as to the proper scope and business of the house led, in 1847, to its dissolution. J. G. King, with his son-in-law and son, under the firm of James G. King & Sons, continued the old business in the same line exactly.

Mr. King, shortly after the formation of the new firm, made a second visit to Europe, with a view both to business and pleasure, taking part of his family with him. While abroad, though only gone for some five or six months, one of those financial disturbances, which, if not regularly periodical in commercial affairs, are of frequent occurrence, came to try the skill, the prudence, and the nerve of the younger partners left in charge of the house in New York; it found them well prepared, and passed them by undisturbed and uninjured. In London, a like money pressure and derangement existed, produced on both sides by the same cause, deficient harvests in Europe, and excessive speculations in breadstuffs. Mr. King had thus again the opportunity, by his steadiness of nerve and character, and his full comprehension of all the difficulty as regards his own countrymen, to encourage and relieve the public mind in England. He had too, at the same time, the opportunity to manifest, in a very special manner, the interest he continued to feel in the welfare of his late partners.

Mr. King came back at the close of 1847, bringing with him an increased

measure of confidence and regard from some of the leading capitalists of Europe, and experiencing most satisfactorily in the constantly enlarging business of the house, the evidence of such confidence. He did not, however, feel himself called upon to devote his time and labor, as in former years, in so great a degree to business. His young associates had proved their prudence, capacity, and industry, under difficult circumstances, and he was content to leave to them the burden of work, always exercising, however, a thorough and intelligent supervision over the business.

Mention has been made of the friendly and confidential relations which subsisted between Mr. King and the late J. J. Astor. It was a cherished wish of Mr. Astor, many years ago urged upon Mr. King, that he would consent to be one of the executors of his estate. Mr. King was very averse to undertaking any such trust, of which the responsibilities would, as in this case, extend beyond the probable period of his own life; but after repeated requests he consented, and by the last will of Mr. Astor, Mr. King was named an executor and also a trustee of the public library, for the establishment of which the will made so liberal provision. It so happened that owing to his change of residence and consequently ceasing to be a citizen of New York, Mr. King could not, according to the laws of the State, enter upon the duty of an executor without giving bond in twice the amount of the personal property of the deceased, for the faithful performance of that duty. Mr. W. B. Astor, who well knew, and himself shared in, his father's strong desire that Mr. King should serve in that capacity, at once offered to give the required bonds himself, but Mr. King absolutely declined, not willing that any one should be bound in the penalty of millions for him. He, however, at the request of the executors, habitually met with them as a friend and adviser, but without any official character. As trustee of the library, he was always a punctual and interested attendant at every meeting of the board, and derived much satisfaction from being instrumental in shaping and directing a benefaction so fraught with good to the present and all future time.

His connection too with the Chamber of Commerce was one in which he took much pleasure. It began with his earliest mercantile career, having been elected a member of that corporation in April, 1817. When, after several years of absence in Europe, he returned to his native city, he renewed his connection with the Chamber. In 1841 he was chosen first vice president, and annually rechosen for four years, when, in 1845, he became president, and served in that station four years. Over and above the ordinary business of this body, its president, by the will of Capt. Randal, the generous founder of the *Sailors' Snug Harbor*, was to be *ex officio* a trustee of that noble foundation. Mr. King entered very thoroughly upon this duty, and was instant on all proper occasions and in all proper ways, both to render it as beneficent as possible to those for whom it was instituted, and to confine it to them. Hence he always sought, so far as depended upon his vote and influence, to place all the subordinate trusts and offices in the hands of sea-faring men, to abolish all expenditure not needed for the accommodation and benefit of the sailors, and all sinecures.

On retiring from the chair of the Chamber in 1848, in the course of an address of thanks to the assembled members for the partiality shown by his frequent re-election, he dwelt with particular emphasis upon this important *ex officio* connection of the president of the Chamber with the foundation of the *Sailors' Snug Harbor*, and expressed fervently the hope, both in the interest of the sailor who had so good a right to look up to the merchant as

his natural guardian, and in behalf of the dignity and efficiency of the Chamber, that this part of the president's duty would always be faithfully and diligently executed.

The state of public affairs and political questions in 1848, was such as to call forth the anxieties of thoughtful men, and Mr. King, after much solicitation on the part of neighbors and political friends in New Jersey, and the urgent entreaties of many of his associates—the chief commercial men of this city—reluctantly consented to accept a nomination for Congress, from the Vth. Congressional district, where he resided, and where the Whig party, to which he belonged, had the ascendancy. Having once accepted, he went heartily into the canvass, and to the end that his person, and his opinions, as well as his manner of stating these might be widely known to those whose votes he asked, he visited all the chief places of the district, addressing large meetings, making no disguise of any opinion, and assuming none for the occasion; and dealing thus squarely with the constituency, he received from them one of the largest majorities ever cast in the district.

He took his seat in the House of Representatives, at Washington, as a member of the 31st Congress, on Monday, December 4th, 1849, and was present without flinching, at every ballot—amounting to sixty-three in all, and protracted through nearly three weeks, from Monday the 3d to Saturday the 22d of December both inclusive—for Speaker, when Howell Cobb, of Georgia, was finally chosen, by a plurality and not by a majority vote. This organization of the House threw Mr. King into the minority, and gave to the anti-administration party, General Taylor being President, the control of all the committees. Mr. King was put by the Speaker upon the standing committee on roads and canals, where little scope presented itself for his labors. He applied himself with exemplary punctuality and diligence to the business of the house, never being absent from his seat, however long and wearying the sittings, unless actually deterred by illness. On all questions touching the revenue and its collection, the finances, and Commerce, he spoke with marked effect, never wearying the house with prosy essays, nor disturbing its harmony by partisan appeals. As a consequence he was eagerly listened to.

On the bill for a collection of the revenue, his efficiency and his practical ability were specially manifested. The House had talked over, and cavilled at, and delayed a joint resolution from the Senate, authorizing the requisite expenditure for defraying the cost of collecting duties at the Custom-House. The matter was urgent, for there was no appropriation and no money therefore available for such uses. In consequence the business of the Custom-House was seriously embarrassed; every other desk almost was vacant, for lack of means to pay for services, and ships arriving with full cargoes were unable to discharge, because there were not officers to attend to it. Notwithstanding these embarrassments to Commerce and danger to the revenue, the House of Representatives hesitated and objected, insisting that the Secretary of the Treasury should have asked a specific appropriation for each head of expenditure, and seemed disposed to vote against the gross sum asked, although it was, for the half year requiring immediate provision, less than half of the sum voted to Mr. Walker when Secretary of the Treasury, for a year's expense. Mr. King, feeling the great wrong and the great suffering arising from delay, applied himself strenuously to the subject, digested the various amounts needed under specific heads, so as to meet objections on that score, and then moved an amendment to the resolution

from the Senate, in which, after appropriating the respective sums needed for the half year, he employed this phraseology—"and in that proportion for any shorter or longer time, *until Congress shall act upon the subject.*" The passage here marked in italics fixes permanently and without any fresh appropriation, the expenditure for the collection of revenues until Congress shall otherwise order—a very important point since it obviates the recurrence of any like embarrassment to that the resolution was designed to cure. Although opposed by the chairman of the committee of ways and means, Mr. King maintained with so much precision and force the merits of the resolution, that it was finally adopted by a considerable majority, and became, and it is now, the law of the land.

In the course of the next session the Speaker, influenced probably by the impression made upon the House by Mr. King's practical business information and clear and ready elocution, without any suggestion or advance from Mr. King or his friends, placed him on the committee on Commerce, wherein he was able to make himself very useful.

When, at the request of the Secretary of War, Mr. Crawford, a committee was appointed by the House of Representatives to investigate his connection with what was commonly known as the Galphin Claim, and the nature of that claim, the Speaker named Mr. King as a member of it. A calculating politician would probably have declined such a questionable distinction; but Mr. King, strong in the consciousness of right purpose, and always ready to follow out his convictions and stand by them, did not seek to escape the responsibility of this position. He examined the whole case cautiously and acutely, and finding evidence that seemed to him incontestible of the justice of the claim, he recommended its payment; and discovering no rightful nor equitable difference between a debt unlawfully withheld from its creditor by a government and a debt withheld in like circumstances by an individual, he was unable to perceive why the rule which would compel the individual to pay both principal and interest should not equally apply to the government, and accordingly he concurred in, and ably defended on the floor of the House, the report of the committee which recommended the payment of principal and interest on the Galphin Claim. He knew the outcry that awaited such a course; but his own self-respect, and the utterance of and adherence to his honest opinions, pointed it out to him as right, and he took it.

With General Taylor, during his too brief career as President, Mr. King lived on a footing of great confidence and intimacy, and none mourned more truly than he the decease of that honest and good chief magistrate. He foresaw then, what soon became manifest to all, that with the disappearance from the scene of a man of such positive character, such pre-eminent merits, and such deserved popularity as *General Taylor*, a great power to restrain men of extreme opinions from rushing into extravagant measures, was lost. Already the menacing questions connected with the admission of Texas, New Mexico, and California into the Union, were disturbing the harmony of the country; but while General Taylor lived and was invested with the power of chief magistrate, it was felt alike by all, that he would permit no violation of law or constitution, but possessing himself in calmness, and standing aloof from the hot strife of sections, that he would guard the rights of all, and subject all rights to the test of the supreme law. Mr. King concurred entirely with General Taylor and his cabinet in their recommendations as to the proper mode of disposing of the knotty questions

of Texas, New Mexico, and California, and was therefore not prepared for, and did not approve the sudden change of policy adopted by the successor of General Taylor, and finally passed through Congress in the shape of the Compromise.

Against the Fugitive Slave Law in particular, Mr. King, faithful to his name and blood, voted ever, as against every proposition that looked to the spread of slavery. Yet amid the hottest agitation on these subjects in Congress, Mr. King neither lost his calmness nor faltered in his opposition. He felt indeed no solicitude about the Union, the safety of which he well knew depends not upon hot-heads in Congress or out of it, and his course was influenced as little by the clamors of those so noisy to save, as by those other so fierce to dissolve the blessed bond that makes us a nation.

Among the incidental claims upon Congress, as administrators of the property of the nation, no one more interested Mr. King than that preferred by Miss Dix for a grant of public land towards defraying the expenses of establishing, where needed, asylums for the protection and the cure of the insane. He felt the force of this appeal all the more strongly from the beautiful example of self-sacrifice and generous devotion to the cause of the most desolate of God's creatures, which that lady's life, and exertions, and sufferings, and dangers exhibited—and he labored zealously, though without success, to obtain the grant she asked. He had the happiness, however, of presenting through her and upon her suggestion, a library of select books to the Insane Asylum of New Jersey at Trenton, and subsequently sent, for the embellishment of the grounds of that institution and for the supply of its conservatories, a large collection of plants.

The first session of the 31st Congress lasted almost *ten months*, and during that whole time Mr. King never left Washington. But the life was unsuited to his habits and tastes: and although purposing to serve out his term, he made up his mind not to be a candidate for re-election. After attending with like fidelity through the second session, in the course of which he had occasion again and again to press upon the House the necessity and advantage of establishing a branch mint in New York, Mr. King returned home in March, 1851, with the settled purpose to avoid any further engagement in public life. Yet his career in Congress had been altogether successful. As a speaker, he was always attentively heard, for it was known that he only spoke when he had something to say, and left off when he had said it; while his accurate information and large experience in all matters connected with Commerce and finance, gave great weight to his opinions.

When, upon the accession of Mr. Fillmore to the Presidency, a new cabinet was formed, Mr. King was spoken of as the Secretary of the Treasury, and his name was urged upon Mr. Fillmore. Mr. King, as soon as he heard of it, went himself to Mr. Fillmore, and at once begged him not to trouble himself a moment with considering his (Mr. King's) name, in reference to that or any office, for he could not accept one under any circumstances.

Putting off his official robes with far more alacrity than he had put them on, Mr. King returned with increased delight to his trees, his garden, and his beautiful rural home.

Withdrawing himself more and more from the cares and the requirements of business, he gave himself serenely and cheerfully to that preparation for another life, the need of which advancing years bring to every sensitive and thoughtful mind, and which to his mind was brought all the more

impressively by reason of occasional disturbances of the regular action of the heart and lungs. These symptoms he accepted without murmur, as a kindly and merciful warning. "There is something wrong here," he would say, laying his hand upon his broad chest, "I will fight it while I can, but it is to prevail," and beautifully did he carry out this manly sentiment.

Thus far we have looked at Mr. King in his relations with the world, and with society, as a man of business and a public man. Turn we now to the family circle and his inner life. There he was the radiant center of as much love, happiness, and close and united affection, as the world has witnessed. His manner, his voice, his eye, his smile, revealed the deep springs within his heart, of love and joy, and inventive, considerate, and unselfish kindness. With an exterior somewhat set and grave, even at times to reserve; with a steadiness of look that seemed to scrutinize the inmost nature, and that sometimes left the impression of coldness, he united the warmest and tenderest feelings, the quickest and truest sensibilities, and the most unselfish and unchangeable attachments.

Of a well set and vigorous frame, untouched by excesses of any sort, with health uninterrupted till towards the close of his life—a sound mind in a sound body—he took his part in the world cheerfully, hopefully, and with head and heart elate. He was a thorough MAN. Diligent and punctual in business, he yet did not permit it to shut out reasonable recreation and the society of his household. He loved his horse, his dog, his gun, and was a proficient in the use of all of them; and these tastes lasted with him through life.

The country had great charms for him, and much of his attention, of late years, was given, as has already been intimated, to the cultivation of fruits and flowers, and to that most rational, seductive, and withal, even in a mercantile sense, remunerating employment, the planting of trees. The groves of Highwood, (his residence on the Weehawken Heights opposite to the city,) will recall for generations the tasteful and skillful hand which planted, arranged, and grouped them. These cannot follow him, but they will bear witness to him long after all who now enjoy their grateful shade shall have followed him to that resting-place where the funereal cypress weeps alone.

Of simple and child-like faith, of unaffected and unpretending piety, with the consciousness of a life well spent, and of every duty fulfilled, so far as may be predicated of any mere mortal, with no rancor in his heart against any human being, surrounded by all temporal blessings, in the midst of a devoted family, all centering their affections on him, and each emulating his good example, with everything to gild the close of life, he seemed, as the shadows were lengthening, to have withdrawn himself measurably from the busy haunts of men, chiefly that in his lovely and beloved home he might busy himself in devising how to do good to others, and thus add still brighter and more beautiful tints to the calm yet glowing sunset which his prophetic heart seemed to feel was near at hand.

It would be to lift too much the sacred vail of Home to attempt to specify how and how frequently, and how thoughtfully, and how wisely, and how liberally, he exercised his benevolence, but it is not presumptuous to say, that Heaven seemed to smile upon his wishes, and to hallow them. One incident in illustration of this remark, may be mentioned without violating the sanctities of the domestic hearth. A misunderstanding had for some

years existed and comparative estrangement, between him and one who had been nearly connected with him by family ties. This state of things grieved him, for having no resentments or unkindness in his own heart, he was uneasy even under the appearance of cherishing any. A casual and most improbable meeting in a city omnibus, only four days before his death, with the person thus estranged, the inhabitant of another State, afforded him the opportunity of reconciliation. After exchanging friendly salutations in the omnibus, when the person alighted, he too got out, and when alone together, said, extending his hand, "If without asking or giving any explanation you are willing that we should be friends, let it be so;" adding, with that solemn prescience which sometimes goes before the event, "I want, before I die, to be at peace with all." The extended hand was taken—peace was his; and the last words heard from his lips, the last smile on his glowing face, seen by him who in sorrow and in sadness writes these lines, was on the very next day, when he burst in upon him to tell, with the earnestness of complete happiness, the particulars of the interview just related. In less than *sixty hours*! that warm, gentle, generous, manly heart had ceased to beat, that tongue was still in death.

His death was very sudden, and in this particular not unanticipated by him. Previous severe spasmodic paroxysms of the heart and lungs, without warning, and, so far as could be understood, without any predisposing cause, had made him aware of the peculiar uncertainty of his life. He had looked at the case with the calm and sound judgment which was his characteristic, and having come to the conclusion that at any moment one of these paroxysms a little more prolonged than usual would terminate his existence, he prepared himself for such an issue; he set his house in order, and, though manifesting no anxiety, omitting no duty; failing not in the cheerfulness of his social intercourse, and to the common eye evincing by no sign that he felt himself to be at every instant on the brink of the grave, it is believed that he had not for a long, long while ever laid his head on the pillow at night without the thought that he might never see another morning, nor without tranquilly saying, as with his last breath almost he repeated—"Thy will be done."

And this prevision as to the manner of his death was realized. On Monday the 3d of October he had been well as usual, and retired at his accustomed hour to bed. He was soon and suddenly seized by one of those paroxysms. The remedies always at hand, before applied with success, were now resorted to in vain; and before the physician could reach the house, or the family even be assembled, with perfect consciousness and perfect resignation, without a struggle and almost without a sigh, he breathed out his life, in less than half an hour from the first attack of the paroxysm.

Such was the peaceful close of a beautiful life—a life which may be summed up in a few brief lines.

Happily born, carefully educated, with a high order of mind; early and happily married, blessed with dutiful and affectionate children; crowned with prosperity, surrounded with all men's respect, and with all means, appliances, and temptations to selfish indulgences—James G. King was simple in his tastes and habits, unostentatious, self-denying, considerate of others, actively benevolent, exact yet liberal in business, cheerful and instructive as a companion, sought after and prized in society, but loving home with a fondness which years rather added to than weakened, and especially loving children and loved by them—he has passed away; the scenes that knew

him shall know him no more forever, but his memory will endure, and his example shall not perish from among men.

"Quis desiderio sit pudor aut modus
 Tam cari capitis. * * *
 * * * * *
 * * * Pudor et Justitiæ soror
 Incorrupta Fides nudaqua Veritas,
 Quando ullum invenient parem?
 Multis ille bonis flebilis occidit
 Nulli flebilior quam mihi."

ART. IV.—THE COTTON TRADE.

In presenting to your readers the statistics of the cotton trade for the past year, I am compelled by unavoidable circumstances to omit any remarks or suggestions they might present to me. The figures, however, will not be dry or uninteresting, so numerous and varied are the interests connected with this branch of our agriculture and Commerce.

CONSUMPTION.

In ENGLAND the demand for 1853 has been less than for the preceding year, but only a little less. In the first half of the year the amount worked up by the mills was really larger than in 1852; but the Turkish troubles, and the high price of corn, has reduced the consumption very considerably. The Liverpool deliveries to the trade, which constitute more than 95 per cent of the whole purchases of the manufacturers, have been for the two years as follows:—

	Liverpool Delivery.		Weekly Consumption.	
	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
May 6.....	683,000	630,000	38,000	35,000
June 3.....	833,270	870,140	37,900	39,500
July 1.....	989,550	1,000,610	38,100	38,400
August 5.....	1,202,650	1,194,400	38,800	38,600
September 2.....	1,306,420	1,340,000	37,300	38,400
October 7.....	1,429,740	1,520,040	35,700	38,000
November 4.....	1,545,250	1,701,470	35,100	38,700
" 11.....	1,578,150	1,718,700	35,100	38,200
" 18.....	1,609,500	1,731,100	35,000	37,600

For the whole year the consumption of Great Britain for 1852 was 1,861,200 bales, against 1,663,400 for 1851, and 1,514,500 for 1852, and 1,474,420 for the average of the five preceding years. The falling off for 1854 is not so great as would appear by the reported deliveries, since the stocks in the hands of the manufacturers were estimated to be 50,000 bales more than usual on the first of January last, and at the present time they are supposed to be uncommonly low.

The demand for the coming year must decline. The high price of food must seriously interfere with the domestic consumption of Great Britain. When the cost of the English quarter of wheat is now (according to the average of the 12th of November) 73s. 7d. against 40s. for 1852, the portion of their wages which the laborer and artisan can spare for clothing is much diminished. The scarcity of money, as indicated by an advance in the rate of interest from 2 to 5 per cent, must also discourage the wants of the home

trade. The favorable circumstances, such as the high price of iron, the general advance in wages, the abundance of work for the laborer, the diminution in the number of paupers, will be alike operative for both years. The export trade will be seriously embarrassed by the war between Turkey and Russia. The calicoes sent to Turkey and the Levant, including the plain, printed, and dyed, approach 100,000,000 yards per annum, which is 10 or 12 per cent of the whole export. The cotton yarn is 7 or 8 per cent. The calicoes bought by Russia are few, but the yarn is nearly as much as that sent to Turkey. The demand from both these countries must be very much decreased by the war. From Austria and the other German States a decline must be expected from the same cause. The revolution in China will seriously interrupt the exports to that country. The cotton cloths sold by Great Britain alone to this populous empire are larger than what is taken by Russia and Turkey together. The possession of Nankin, and the control of the great canal by the rebels, the occupation of Amoy and Shanghai, two of the five open ports, by lawless usurpers and robbers in whom the merchants place no confidence, the famine at Peking, and the alarm and distrust at Canton, will largely curtail the English exports to the Celestial Empire. From Australia and India, the United States and Canada, no falling off may be anticipated; but if we notice the very large business done with these important countries for the year 1853, no increase can be expected for 1854. The failure of the harvests in Lombardy, France, and Germany, and the high price of food in all parts of the continent of Europe, will lessen the demand for English cottons. Everywhere, both at home and abroad, the prospects of the English manufacturers are discouraging.

Under these circumstances, it may be expected that the increase in the consumption of 1852 and 1853 over previous years will be entirely lost, and that the wants of Great Britain for 1854 will not much exceed the average of 1849, 1850, and 1851, which was 1,589,400 bales. It may reach 1,700,000, but its probable limit is 1,600,000 bales.

In FRANCE the consumption for 1853 is nearly as large as for 1852, and both are decidedly above those of previous years. The deliveries at Havre up to the 16th of November were 349,045 bales, against 367,587 for 1852, and 275,764 for 1851. Our exports to France for 1852 and 1853 have been 421,375 and 426,728 bales; but the stocks on the 16th of November were 36,716 bales in excess of last year, and 37,200 bales over 1851. This would indicate a probable consumption of American cotton for the present year of 390,000 bales; but on account of the unfavorable circumstances at the close of the year, this amount will scarcely be attained. The very great deficiency of the French harvest will lessen the demand for 1854: but as past experience shows that the consumption in the French factories is much more regular than in England, the wants for the coming year of American cotton will not probably fall below 350,000 bales.

The demand for United States cotton on the continent of Europe has not declined for the year 1853. Our exports to those countries are larger than ever before, and the same is true of the English exports. Ours have been 364,812 bales, against 353,522 for 1852, and 269,000 for 1851. The exports from Liverpool, up to November 18th, were 237,540 bales, those of 1852 having been 219,430. The sum of these two for the whole year 1852 was 636,322 bales, and for 1853 they will be larger. The consumption in the German States, and even in Russia, will suffer but little decline, as the demand has for many years been advancing with great steadiness

and regularity. For 1854, these countries will probably require not less than 600,000 bales.

For the last year the consumption of the United States has advanced from 603,029 bales to 671,009. The general prosperity of the New England manufacturers and of the country at large, warrants the anticipation of an increase in this demand. The stringency in the money market and the decline in the probable demand for exportation to China, will be more than made up by the increased population of our country, the prosperity of the farmers on account of the high price of breadstuffs, and the abundant crops which have generally rewarded the labors of the husbandman. For the coming year the wants of our manufacturers will probably reach 700,000 bales.

The following table comprises the consumption of 1851 and 1852, the probable result for 1853, and the estimate for 1854:—

	Result for		Estimate for	
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
Wants of Great Britain.....	1,663,000	1,861,000	1,700,000	1,600,000
“ of France	310,000	410,000	375,000	350,000
“ of United States	404,000	603,000	671,000	700,000
“ of other countries....	538,000	636,000	650,000	600,000
Total	2,915,000	3,510,000	3,396,000	3,250,000

SUPPLY.

In the United States, a falling off in the receipts will be everywhere experienced; but the deficiency will not be large. The promise in the early part of the year was good, in every part of the country. Up to July the season had been dry; but the drought, though disastrous to the corn, did but little damage to the cotton. On the uplands, the weed was stunted, but on the good lands, especially on the river bottoms and in swampy localities, the fields could not look better. The abundant rains that set in during July and August stimulated the plant on the uplands and appeared to help it; but the new fruit thus produced was generally cut off by the frost on the 25th of October. On the low grounds where the weed was thriving, on the appearance of the rains the squares dropped very extensively, and the late fruit in some places was ruined by the frost. In very many places, however, the plant was not killed, and the fine weather that followed the frost brought out the crop most wonderfully. It was feared that the excessive wetness of the season would encourage the production of the caterpillar and the boll-worm; and on many plantations, indeed, they made sad havoc; but they did not appear so extensively as was feared, and their ravages were not general.

From South Carolina and Georgia a considerable decline might be expected. The first crop of bolls was small, on account of the drought; the second was lessened by the rains; and the third was generally cut off by the frost. But many places have escaped one or the other of these calamities; and the deficiency of the receipts at Charleston and Savannah will be made up in part by increased shipments from Columbus and the Tennessee River. Instead of 813,000 bales for past year, 750,000 may be expected for 1854. From Florida the falling off will be small. The crops on the Flint and Chatahoochee rivers are much better than they were last year, and were it not for the Muscogee Railroad, there would be an increase rather than a decline. The worm and caterpillar have done some damage. But the plant-

ing has been larger; they have had no disastrous storm; and the October frost did not everywhere stop the growth of the plant. The estimate for 1854 may be put at 160,000 bales. From Alabama the reports are various and contradictory. Up to July the promise was never better. The wet weather brought the boll-worm on many plantations, and its ravages at some places were very great. The forms fell off very rapidly: many blossoms were killed. The fine prospects of the summer were by this time injured. The frost then came and destroyed all hope of the late crop of bolls; but in many districts the growth of the cotton was not interrupted by this frost, and during the whole month of November the fine weather for opening and gathering the late crop favored the planters very much.

For Mobile the receipts may be anticipated to be about the same as for the last two years. Similar remarks apply for the most part to New Orleans. The worm was more disastrous in Mississippi and Louisiana, than it was in Alabama; and the malignancy of the yellow fever interrupted at many places proper attention to the crop. A slight decline may be anticipated, therefore for New Orleans. From Texas, on account of the increased number of planters and the favorable seasons, a small increase over last year may be looked for. From the whole country the receipts may be put at 3,000,000 bales, as in the table below. The great falling off in the receipts for the first part of the season, would appear at first sight to warrant the prediction that the whole crop would be very small. But last year the rivers were very favorable to early shipments from the plantations to the seaboard; and the extraordinary continuance of the yellow fever at the Gulf ports, and its unusual malignity, have, for the present season, discouraged the planters and steamboat owners from forwarding to an early market, the cotton that was otherwise ready for shipment.

	Crop of		Estimate for	
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
Texas	46,000	64,000	86,000	90,000
New Orleans	933,000	1,373,000	1,581,000	1,400,000
Mobile	452,000	549,000	545,000	540,000
Florida	181,000	189,000	179,000	160,000
Georgia	322,000	326,000	350,000	325,000
South Carolina	387,000	477,000	463,000	425,000
Other places	34,000	37,000	59,000	66,000
Total	2,355,000	3,015,000	3,263,000	3,000,000

The supply from the East Indies will be large. The troubles in China, whither a large portion of their exports is directed, have diverted an unusual amount of cotton from Canton, to Liverpool and London. The imports into Liverpool alone from Surat, Madras, and Bengal, were, on the 18th of November, 277,544 bales, against 124,306 for the year 1852. The whole English receipts were 221,500 bales for 1852, and 328,800 for 1851. Of these amounts the Liverpool receipts were 156,673 and 232,100. If the same proportion yet prevails between the Liverpool and the London imports, the receipts for Great Britain of East India cotton for 1853, will exceed 400,000 bales. For the year 1854, the revolution in China will produce a more decided effect on this diversion of the trade, than it has hitherto done. The English prices which always influence very largely the amount of Indian imports, do not promise so favorably as last year. Balancing these two causes, the estimate for 1854 may be put at 400,000 bales.

From Egypt, Brazil, and the West Indies, the supply has been on the in-

crease for the last four or five years. For the two years, 1847 and 1848, it averaged 136,450 bales. For 1849 and 1850 it was 251,350. For 1851 and 1852 it was 263,850. For 1853 the receipts at Liverpool up to the 18th of November were 219,451 bales against 244,939 for the preceding year. As the whole English receipts for 1852 were 346,700 bales, the smallness of the decline at Liverpool authorizes the expectation that at the end of 1853 they will reach 300,000 bales.

Will this be lessened for the incoming year? No serious falling off can be expected in the South American and West India exports. These constituted for 1851 and 1852 more than half of the receipts, and for 1853 they were two-thirds. In the Egyptian, a decline may be expected on account of the Turkish troubles. But as the planting of the crop took place before these difficulties became serious, the deficiency of the present year will be but slight. Not less than 250,000 bales may confidently be anticipated for 1854.

The supply then from all these sources will probably reach 3,650,000 bales, against nearly four millions for 1853, as appears from the following table:—

	Result for		Estimate for	
	1851. Bales.	1852. Bales.	1853. Bales.	1854. Bales.
United States	2,355,000	3,015,000	3,263,000	3,000,000
East Indies.....	329,000	221,000	400,000	400,000
Other places.....	181,000	347,000	300,000	250,000
Total.....	2,865,000	3,583,000	3,963,000	3,650,000

PRICES.

As this estimate is 400,000 bales above the probable demand at present prices, according to the estimate given above, it would seem impossible to sustain the rates at which cotton is now selling. The stocks are already large, on account of the immense production of last year. On the first of September the amount of old cotton in our ports was 135,648 bales against 91,176 for the year 1852. On the first Friday of October it was in Liverpool, 770,770 bales against 503,670 in 1852. At Havre it had increased by October 14th, to 53,586 bales over the preceding year. The accumulation at these places having advanced more than 350,000 bales during 1853, furnishes a proof that the large crop of the past year has not been consumed. The great deficiency in our receipts at the seaboard, for the early part of the present season, and of our exports to foreign countries, does not permit the enhanced amount of stocks to be now so apparent as it otherwise would be.

Since then the stocks increased largely in 1853, and promise to continue to advance still more for the present year, it would seem impossible that the market price for cotton should continue above the average rates. For the last fourteen years, from 1840 to 1853, the average price has been 8 cents and 7 mills. The exports to foreign ports for the first ten of these years, amounted in all to 7,128 millions of pounds; for the last four they have been 3,570 millions. The value of the first ten was 552 millions of dollars; of the last four, 381 millions. For the whole period, 10,698 millions of pounds were exported for 933 millions of dollars, giving the average price just mentioned. The present price at Charleston, (December 9th, 1853,) for middling is 9½, and for good middling 10 cents. These rates being decidedly above the average, cannot well be maintained, in the face of the

large supply and the diminished demand, while food remains dear and money scarce, while actual war is raging between Russia and Turkey, and imminent danger of general hostilities impends over the principal states of Europe. The large demand in the United States, both for the raw material and for English cotton goods, the immense trade opened in Australia, and the general prosperity in the English colonies and in Mexico and South America, will prevent a serious decline. But that prices must fall below the average of past years appears to be plainly foreshadowed by the history of the past and the circumstances under which the new year opens.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

INSURANCE—TIME POLICIES.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, November Term, 1853, *F. W. Capen vs. Washington Insurance Company.*

This case came before the Supreme Court on an agreed statement of facts in March, 1851, and upon the opinion as delivered by the Chief Justice, the statement was discharged, and the case sent down for trial, for reasons stated in that opinion, a note of which we republish. The case came up again last term on the report of the Chief Justice, and upon that report the opinion of the Court was stated by him at the present term. The Chief Justice said, that although the Court gave no opinion upon the main question when the case was first before them, yet the law as to implied warranty in time policies was then somewhat fully considered, and with the advantage of that discussion, he had drawn up with much care his proposed instructions to the jury. Those instructions had been considered by the Court, and received their assent, and as he had prepared no written opinion, he would read those instructions, (with some general remarks and illustrations,) as presenting the principles on which this case would be determined by the Court.

The opinion in March, 1851, upon which the case was sent to the jury, was as follows:—

This was an action upon a policy on the ship *Riga* for one year, and came before the Court upon an agreed statement of facts, in substance as follows: At the time the policy was subscribed, the *Riga* was at sea. She returned to Boston, and was again sent out with an assorted cargo to Norfolk, where she was surveyed and pronounced unfit to resume her voyage without essential and costly repairs. The surveyors thought, however, that she might take in a light cargo and go in ballast to some Northern port, where she could be repaired at less expense. She took in such a cargo, sailed, and was burned at sea. The plaintiff admitted, that although seaworthy for the voyage upon which she was engaged at the inception of the policy, yet such was the condition of her timbers at that time, that it was certain she would require repairs before the expiration of the year in some essential parts of her frame work, to fit her for the cargoes usually carried by such vessels, but reserved the right to go to the jury upon these facts, if the judgment should be that their effect was to vitiate the insurance. The defendants also admitted for the purposes of the hearing, that she was seaworthy for the voyage in which she was first engaged, but likewise reserved the right to go to the jury if the judgment of the Court should be against them.

Chief Justice Shaw delivered the opinion of the Court. The question here presented is purely speculative. The great business of the courts is to render judgment, not to give opinions, although the performance of that duty often requires the expression of opinions on various points, directly or incidentally involved. That judgment must be rendered upon facts obtained in some way or other—by the verdict of a jury or the agreement of parties, as the case may be; but there must be a sufficient number of facts undisputed or proved. Sometimes a case is so complicated that it is exceedingly difficult to do more than pass judgment upon the special circumstances given—than simply to put it on one side or the other of some general rule, without affording an occasion or opportunity for abstract opinions upon points of law generally applicable.

The question apparently intended to be presented in this case is, whether, if a vessel is seaworthy at the date of a policy, but requires essential repairs before the expiration of the time for which she is insured, and is subsequently lost from another cause, independent of such defects, the insured can recover on his policy? This is a purely abstract question, and there are not facts enough to enable the Court to form an opinion even upon that. Was the condition requiring repairs one of natural decay? Did it arise or not from the very perils insured against? And when and where? If from such perils, was she at home or abroad? Was she within reach of repairs, or so far distant from a port where they could be obtained as to render it hazardous to seek them? Such are some of the questions which it may become necessary to answer before the point presented can be properly passed upon. Nor is the language used sufficiently precise to enable the Court to come to a determination. The word seaworthy is commonly applied to the condition in which the vessel is when the policy attaches, and is used to express her capacity for navigating the sea. If she has no capacity for navigation, there is nothing for the policy to attach to, and the contract is void, simply because its subject does not exist. But the word may be used to express the condition of a vessel adapted to the particular purpose for which she is to be used, and then a question arises as to the duty of the insured in such a case, and its performance. Must he make her seaworthy for each new adventure? And was she fit for the voyage upon which she was sent? The possibility of such a variety of circumstances capable of being embraced within the limits of this statement, renders an abstract opinion useless and improper. The Court have said that when a single question of law upon a state of facts is presented, they will hear it; but as this case stands, it presents a question too purely abstract. The opinion, if given, would be upon a partial or limited view, and might hereafter embarrass the Court. The statement of facts must be discharged, and the case sent down for trial.

The following is the material portion of the Chief Justice's report of the case, with his proposed instructions to the jury, November Term, 1851:—

This is an action upon a policy of insurance underwritten by the defendants, April 10, 1848, whereby they cause the plaintiff to be insured to whom it might concern, payable to him in case of loss, \$6,240, on ship Riga, at and from the port or place where she was on March 30, 1848, at noon, to and at all ports and places to which she might proceed for one year from that time; and with a provision that if she should be at sea at the end of the year, the risk should continueat *pro rata* premium, until she arrived at her port of discharge.

There was evidence tending to show that at the time of subscribing of the policy the ship was at sea, that she afterwards arrived at Boston in the month of September with an assorted cargo, which she delivered in good order; and there was no evidence, that at the beginning of the year for which she was insured, March 30, 1848, she was not either safe in port, or in the prosecution of a voyage, on which she had sailed in a seaworthy condition, except that which might have resulted from the surveys subsequently mentioned, or that she was not a vessel capable of being made useful and fit for navigation, with suitable repairs at suitable times during the time insured.

There was also evidence that after undergoing some repairs at Boston, she sailed from thence to Norfolk in October, that she there took in a cargo of staves, which is a heavy one tending to strain a vessel, that she sailed thence for Sicily, and after being a short time at sea sprung a leak in heavy weather, as the plaintiff maintained, but which was denied by the defendants, who attributed the same to decay and weakness, in consequence of which, and at the solicitation of the crew, the master put back, and went into the port of Savannah, Georgia. That two surveys were then had, the result of which was a report of the surveyors that, in their opinion, owing to the weak state of the vessel and the decayed condition of her timbers, it was necessary that she should undergo extensive and costly repairs, in the removal of defective timbers among other things, and the substitution of new ones, though she might be in a fit condition with some calking and slight repairs to proceed to a northern port in ballast, or with a light cargo of cotton, for permanent reparation, the cost of such repairs at Savannah being estimated at \$10,000, but much less at New York or Boston.

There was evidence that she was calked and slightly repaired at Savannah, and sailed with a light cargo for New York, and on her passage, about March 3d or 4th, was burnt at sea and totally lost.

The ground of defence was that at the commencement of this risk, March 30, 1848, regarding decay only, this vessel was so much weakened and impaired in strength as not to be able to bear the ordinary perils of navigation without essential repairs, and re-placing with new the timbers thus decayed or beginning to decay, *for and during the time of one year*, for which she was insured, and if so that she was not seaworthy, within the implied warranty which the assured were bound by, and so the policy never attached.

2. If the policy did attach, the assured were under a like implied warranty or obligation to have the vessel sound, in good repair, and seaworthy at the commencement of each voyage or passage during the time, and that if they failed to perform this duty or comply with the condition, the insurers were thenceforth discharged from their contract of insurance, that it became void, so that if a loss afterward happened, though by a peril insured against, and not caused in whole or in part by such unseaworthiness arising from weakness or decay. That said vessel did sail from Norfolk on a voyage toward Sicily in an unseaworthy condition, and that from that time the underwriters were discharged from further liability on the contract.

3. That the vessel sailed from Savannah towards New York in a like unseaworthy condition, by means of which the policy became void and the defendants discharged before the loss by fire which occurred during that voyage.

But the court ruled that on a policy on time for a certain term, at all times and places, there is no *implied warranty* on the part of the assured that the vessel is seaworthy, in the *ordinary sense of that term*, either at the time of the policy underwritten, or at the day on which the policy by its terms commences the risk; but that the only implied warranty in this respect is, that the vessel is in existence as a vessel, not lost at the time fixed for the commencement of the risk, capable, if then in port, of being made useful, with proper repairs and fittings, for navigation, and is in a safe or suitable condition for such a vessel to be in, whether at sea, in port, stripped and under repairs on a suitable railway for that purpose or otherwise, and is seaworthy when she first sails from port, or if she is at sea, that she has sailed in a seaworthy condition, and is safe (*salvus*—not lost) so as to be a proper subject for a contract of insurance at the time the risk attaches; and if the vessel is in such condition and the implied warranty to this extent is not broken, the policy attaches and is not void, and the premium cannot be recovered back; but if the vessel was then lost, became a wreck, or ceased to exist as a vessel, or was, if at sea, in a condition or under circumstances in which she could not on her arrival in port be made available by reasonable or suitable repairs and fitting for navigation, then there was no subject for the policy to take effect upon, the contract would fail and be void, and the premium liable to be recovered back.

This was a question of fact for the jury. This direction was in effect such as to negative the first proposition on which the defence was placed, to wit:—that in every policy of insurance on time, there is any implied warranty on the part of the assured that the vessel is then in such a state of strength, soundness, and freedom from decay, that she must be considered reasonably capable, without replacing decayed timbers or materials, to bear the ordinary perils of navigation, during the term of time covered by the policy.

The second and third grounds of defence are these, viz:—that if the vessel was seaworthy within the previous ruling, at the inception of the risk, yet that the assured were under an implied warranty or obligation to keep the vessel seaworthy during the time for which she was insured; and that if she was permitted to go to sea, at any time during the term, from a port or place where repairs, supplies, and equipments could be obtained, in an unseaworthy condition, the insurers were thereby discharged from further liability on the policy; and that they were thus discharged by the fact that this vessel was permitted to sail from Norfolk, where repairs might be obtained, on a voyage to Sicily in an unseaworthy condition; also that she was suffered to depart from the port of Savannah in an unseaworthy condition, both of which events preceded the loss by fire on the homeward voyage.

On this subject the chief justice proposed to rule and instruct the jury, that if the vessel was seaworthy at the inception of the risk, the policy attached, and that although it was the duty of the assured, relying on the policy for indemnity, to keep the vessel sound, staunch, and suitably fitted to bear the ordinary perils of navigation, yet the obligation to do so was not a warranty of seaworthiness, in the ordinary sense of that term, so that a failure to perform it would determine and put an end to the contract, and discharge the underwriters from their liability from any or all perils; but the obligation of the assured was to this effect, that if they failed to perform it and the vessel should become unseaworthy during the term, and the vessel should be afterwards lost from a cause attributable in whole or in part to such default on the part of the assured, the underwriters would not be responsible for such loss, because not a risk insured against.

But as the policy is not rendered void by such unseaworthiness, if the vessel be subsequently lost by a peril insured against, not caused in whole or in part by such default of the assured, they would be entitled to recover. In applying this rule the chief justice proposed to direct the jury, that the sailing of a vessel from Norfolk on a voyage to Sicily, and afterwards from Savannah to New York, although in an unseaworthy condition, was not a breach of warranty, which annulled and rendered the policy void, if the loss was not attributable to such unseaworthiness, and if the vessel within the term was lost by fire, which was an independent peril insured against, the underwriters were liable for the loss.

The defendants' counsel, relying upon the grounds of law above stated, and objecting to the above directions, declined going to the jury to find upon the evidence that the vessel was unseaworthy at the time of the inception of the risk, according to the directions above stated; the case was therefore taken from the jury, and the correctness of the directions given to be submitted to the whole court.

The case was argued at the last term, and on Monday, 21st inst., the opinion of the court was given, sustaining the above proposed directions and rulings.

Judgment for plaintiff for total loss.

C. G. Loring for plaintiff. S. Bartlett for defendants.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

REVIEW OF THE REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY—INCREASED REVENUE OF THE COUNTRY—STATISTICS OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—DECLINE IN SHIPMENTS OF SPECIE—BALANCE AND PROFITS OF FOREIGN COMMERCE—PROPOSED MODIFICATIONS OF THE TARIFF—INCREASE OF THE FREE LIST—CONDITION OF THE MONEY MARKETS IN ALL SECTIONS OF THE COUNTRY—AVAILABILITY OF RAILROAD BONDS—CONDITION OF THE BANKS—FINANCIAL CONDITION OF EUROPEAN MARKETS—STOCKS, AND THE STOCK MARKET—SUPPLY OF GOLD FROM CALIFORNIA, AND DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE MINT—FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE COUNTRY TO NOVEMBER 30TH—CASH DUTIES AT BOSTON, PHILADELPHIA, AND NEW YORK—FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR NOVEMBER AND SINCE JANUARY FIRST—INCREASE IN THE WAREHOUSING BUSINESS—IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR NOVEMBER AND SINCE JANUARY FIRST—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR NOVEMBER AND SINCE JANUARY FIRST, SHOWING A VERY GREAT INCREASE FROM FORMER YEARS—COMPARATIVE SHIPMENTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF PRODUCE UP TO DECEMBER 16TH—INCREASE IN EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS—CROP, AND PROSPECTIVE SHIPMENTS OF CEREALS AT THE SOUTH—LIMITED RECEIPTS OF COTTON, &c., &c.

In a review of the commercial history of the country since the date of our last, the most important topics which claim our attention are embraced in the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, recently laid before Congress. The increase in the revenue of the country, which for the last fiscal year exceeded the estimates upwards of ten millions of dollars, had already been noticed in our pages; but the actual summary of the imports exceeded all previous calculation. In the absence of the full official tables the following comparative totals will be found of interest:—

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Year ending June 30th.	Total imports.	Exports of Domestic prod'ce.	Exports of Foreign prod'ce.	Exports of Specie.	Total Exports.
1844.....	\$108,435,085	\$99,531,774	\$6,214,058	\$5,454,214	\$111,206,046
1845.....	117,254,564	98,455,830	7,584,781	8,606,495	114,646,606
1846.....	121,691,797	101,718,042	7,865,206	3,905,268	113,488,516
1847.....	146,545,638	150,574,844	6,166,754	1,907,024	158,648,622
1848.....	154,998,928	130,203,709	7,986,802	15,841,616	154,032,131
1849.....	147,857,439	131,710,081	8,641,091	5,404,648	145,755,820
1850.....	178,138,318	134,900,233	9,475,493	7,522,994	161,898,720
1851.....	216,224,932	178,620,138	10,295,121	29,472,752	218,388,011
1852.....	212,613,282	154,931,147	12,037,043	49,674,135	209,641,625
1853.....	267,978,647	189,869,162	13,096,213	27,486,875	230,452,250

From this it will be seen that the total imports of the country for the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1853, exceeded those of the previous year \$55,365,365, while the total exports have increased only \$20,810,625. The exports of specie, however, have fallen off \$22,000,000, so that the exports of merchandise and produce have actually increased \$32,763,435, an enormous excess, and altogether unparalleled in the history of our Commerce. The total difference between the declared value of the imports and the exports for the year is \$37,526,397, an amount which the secretary in his report says has been exceeded by the profits on our exports and the freight of our vessels. This statement has been disputed by many journals of the opposite political party, who assert that this difference has been made up by the sale to foreign capitalists of our various railway, and other stocks and bonds. The falling off in the shipments of specie (which show a decline of about 45 per cent.) would indicate that the

bulk of our increased imports have been paid for in something besides coin, while there must be added to the imports, in a fair estimate of our indebtedness, the government bonds forming part of our national debt, which have been sent home for redemption in answer to the call of the secretary. If we had no credits abroad the question would be easily settled, and in that case the excess of imports over exports would be looked upon as a sign of increasing wealth. A farmer who sells produce to the value of \$1,000, and with it buys other productions to the value of \$1,500, has cleared \$500 by the transaction. Many will not be able to see why a nation which ships its produce to the value of \$230,000,000, and imports for it other produce to the value of \$267,000,000, is not also a gainer by the exchange. If it could be distinctly shown that such an exchange was fairly made, we believe the mysterious theorizing upon this subject would be exploded; but credit steps in, and we are told that we have rolled up a great debt which is still hanging over us. Our own opinion is, that the amount of such indebtedness is greatly overrated, and that it would not be in the power of any nation, or of all nations, to injure our standing or credit if an universal settlement of balances were called for to-morrow.

In one respect this country occupies an anomalous position among the nations of the globe; our revenue is so much above our necessities as to be really embarrassing, and the Committee of Ways and Means in Congress will find their chief occupation during the coming session, in maturing a plan for the depletion of the treasury. The Secretary of the Treasury proposes to modify the tariff by affixing a uniform duty of 100 per cent upon foreign liquors, &c., (such as is now levied,) and an uniform duty of 25 per cent upon all other articles not included in the free list. The latter he proposes greatly to increase by exempting from duty, linens, manufacturers dye-stuffs, raw silks, wool with less than ten per cent, and a variety of other articles which will be found enumerated elsewhere. These modifications, which it is supposed would reduce the receipts from customs about \$12,500,000 per annum, have most of them been received with favor by a large majority of the people, but it is doubtful if they can all be effected. Congress will not probably abolish the duty on linens, as if any discrimination is to be used in the laying of imposts, our infant linen manufactures are deserving of consideration. The maximum price of wool to be imported free of duty should not be less than 15 cents, and if all descriptions of wool were included in the free list, it would have the effect, not only to strengthen and encourage our woolen fabricants, but eventually to provide a larger market and richer reward to the energetic wool-grower himself. On the whole, although the report of the secretary is unpretending in style, it may be classed among the most successful documents which have ever emanated from the Treasury Department.

The financial condition of the country has undergone no important change since our last, but the effects of the money pressure are still plainly apparent in all sections, although the crisis has been safely passed. In Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, the value of capital, as shown by the street rates for prime business paper, is about 9 or 10 per cent per annum, and at this rate large amounts can be readily obtained. Confidence, however, is not fully established, and second or third class securities are almost unsaleable. Even railroad bonds of the better class, if not strictly rateable as *prime*, are negotiated with difficul-

ty, and financial schemes which would have been adopted by acclamation a twelvemonth since, are now vetoed with scarcely a dissenting voice. Throughout the interior, both South and West, and more especially in the South and Southwest, currency of all kinds is very scarce, and it is difficult to obtain enough for the transaction of the regular business now pressing upon merchants, traders, and forwarders. How far this will affect the trade of the coming season, we cannot predict, but we think the chief difficulty to be apprehended is from this source. In some parts of New England, and especially in the manufacturing districts of Connecticut, the scarcity of available funds is almost oppressive, owing to the sudden but necessary curtailment of banking facilities. New Haven and Hartford have suffered to a considerable extent from association with certain New York operators, who have become embarrassed in their efforts to build railroads or carry on other schemes of improvement, chiefly upon borrowed capital; and it is estimated that those two cities alone hold over \$1,500,000 of second class railroad and other bonds, which cannot at present be converted into cash means. A very large class of these securities, in the larger cities are in the hands of private capitalists abundantly able to hold them, most of whom are too much chagrined to make any complaint. These bonds may eventually be good, but the holders must put their own shoulders to the work, in order to effect their own release.

The banks in most sections are steadily expanding, and the change is considerable from the lowest point reached during the height of the pressure. The following will show the course of the New York city banks, since the commencement of the weekly statements required by law:—

Week ending.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
August 6.....	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,053	\$60,579,797
August 13.....	94,633,282	10,653,518	9,451,943	57,657,504
August 20.....	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,307,223
August 27.....	92,387,618	11,319,040	9,427,191	57,431,891
September 3.....	91,741,338	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,502,970
September 10.....	91,108,347	11,380,693	9,597,336	57,545,164
September 17.....	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,566,723	57,612,301
September 24.....	90,092,765	11,340,925	9,477,541	58,312,334
October 1.....	90,149,540	11,231,912	9,521,665	57,968,661
October 8.....	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
October 15.....	87,837,273	11,330,172	9,464,714	59,068,674
October 22.....	85,367,981	10,303,254	9,388,543	55,748,729
October 29.....	83,400,321	10,866,672	9,300,350	53,335,462
November 5.....	83,092,630	11,771,880	9,492,158	55,500,977
November 12.....	82,882,409	12,823,575	9,287,629	56,201,007
November 19.....	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,151,443	57,446,424
November 26.....	84,802,530	13,343,196	9,032,769	58,673,076
December 3.....	85,824,756	12,830,772	9,133,586	58,435,207
December 10.....	86,708,028	12,493,760	9,075,704	57,838,076
December 17.....	87,865,073	12,166,020	8,939,830	58,312,478

It will be seen from this that the week ending November 12 was the turning point of the bank movement, and that if the expansion be as gradual as the contraction, it will take at least two months from the present date to reach the position occupied by these banks when the alarm was first given.

The financial condition of foreign States, and especially of England, is still far from favorable. The continued current of specie from London to the continent,

accelerated by the movements of Russia, have kept up an uneasiness in British financial circles, which only a reaction in the course of the precious metals will allay. The embarrassments growing out of the Eastern question, now too well known to need discussion here, have added to this unsettled feeling in the various European markets, and retarded the growing prosperity of the commercial classes.

There has been less activity in stock speculations since our last, but this has not been owing altogether to the stringency in the money market. The number of adventurers in this line of business has greatly decreased. The stock market is never animated for any length of time, unless persons engaged in other and more legitimate pursuits—usually known as “outsiders”—are drawn into the whirl of speculation. The experiences of the past year, and especially of the last six months, have not been favorable to a renewal of this excitement, and we doubt if, for some time to come, there will be any general movement originating with merchants engaged in regular business. We have frequently hinted in former numbers at the impropriety of stock speculations on the part of clerks, accountants, bank officers, &c., and the daily developments of breaches of trust in our large cities where facilities for such a desperate course are freely offered, will, we trust, point our warning with a directness of illustration sufficient to excite general attention.

The receipts of gold from California for the month of November were less than for the same month of the last year; but the deposits of silver at the mint were larger:—

DEPOSITS FOR NOVEMBER.

	Gold from California.	Other Sources.	Silver.	Total.
Philadelphia mint.....	\$3,460,000	\$170,000	\$283,000	\$3,913,000

The total gold deposits for the first eleven months of the years 1851, 1852 and 1853, were as follows:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
January.....	\$5,071,669	\$4,161,688	\$4,962,962
February.....	3,004,970	3,010,222	3,548,528
March.....	2,880,271	3,892,156	7,533,752
April.....	2,288,353	3,091,037	4,766,000
May.....	3,269,491	4,335,578	4,425,000
June.....	3,637,560	6,689,474	4,545,179
July.....	3,127,517	4,193,880	3,505,331
August.....	4,135,312	2,671,533	4,512,000
September.....	4,046,799	4,253,687	3,027,805
October.....	4,743,584	4,140,069	4,452,000
November.....	5,492,454	7,279,941	3,630,000
Total.....	\$42,287,980	\$47,719,295	\$48,908,552

COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA MINT FOR NOVEMBER.

GOLD.			SILVER.		
	Pieces.	Value.		Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles.....	20,912	\$418,240	Half dollars.....	160,000	\$80,000
Half eagles.....	Quarter dollars ..	1,352,000	338,000
Quarter eagles.....	63,612	159,030	Dimes.....	2,960,000	296,000
Gold dollars.....	355,238	355,238	Half dimes.....	3,120,000	156,000
Total.....	439,762	\$932,508	Total silver....	7,592,000	\$870,000
Gold bars.....	827,979	Cents.....	268,000	2,688
Total gold.....	\$1,760,487	Total.....	\$2,633,175

The coinage at Philadelphia during the first eleven months of the present year, has been as follows:—

	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Total.
January.....	\$4,809,388	\$93,750	\$3,860 79	\$4,906,998 79
February.....	2,981,280	97,300	2,000 31	3,080,580 31
March.....	5,693,808	163,800	4,131 26	5,851,739 26
April.....	5,305,080	419,007	2,511 54	5,726,598 54
May.....	2,823,506	608,900	9,120 19	3,441,135 19
June.....	4,774,246	650,000	3,667 82	2,427,913 82
July.....	4,459,469	710,000	4,882 28	5,171,301 28
August.....	3,120,929	850,000	5,591 60	3,976,520 60
September.....	4,221,598	1,205,000	3,100 00	5,429,698 00
October.....	5,265,877	1,210,000	8,500 00	6,484,377 00
November.....	1,760,487	870,000	2,688 44	2,633,175 44
Total.....	\$45,165,668	\$6,877,666	\$47,003 73	\$52,089,037 73

The receipts of gold since December 1st have been on a larger scale, and will make the comparison more in favor of the current year.

The following is a statement of the deposits and coinage at the New Orleans branch mint, for the month of November, 1853:—

DEPOSITS.		COINAGE.	
California gold	\$229,319 96	12,500 eagles	\$135,000
Foreign do	6,360 58		
			\$135,000
	\$235,680 54	40,000 half dollars.....	20,000
Silver parted from California		152,000 quarter dollars	38,000
gold.....	1,635 14	170,000 dimes.....	17,000
Silver from other sources...	450,288 42	700,000 half dimes	35,000
Total value of deposits ..	\$888,604 10	1,078,500 pieces.	
		Total value of coinage	\$245,000

We have already shown the large increase in the imports from foreign ports into the United States down to June 30, which is the close of the fiscal year. We have the means of extending this comparison at some of the ports to the 30th of November. The duties received at both Philadelphia and Boston, show that the imports continue in excess of last year:—

CASH DUTIES ON IMPORTS FOR NOVEMBER.

	1852.	1853.	Increase.
Boston	\$530,443 24	\$637,589 21	\$107,145 97
Philadelphia.....	206,052 80	312 046 05	105,993 75
	\$736,495 54	\$949,635 26	\$213,139 72

The increase at New York is still greater, and we annex a comparative summary from the Custom-house records:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
First quarter	\$6,996,656 48	\$9,295,257 30	\$7,617,887 72	\$11,125,500 47
Second quarter....	6,033,253 57	7,357,408 30	6,632,425 16	10,041,829 03
Third quarter.....	10,190,324 37	9,402,997 30	10,281,190 03	13,613,105 14
In October	2,112,906 29	1,958,516 17	2,392,109 57	2,705,694 33
In November.....	1,642,125 27	1,488,740 09	2,051,476 35	2,642,985 92
Total 11 months..	\$26,975,265 98	\$29,502,919 16	\$28,975,088 83	\$40,129,114 89

The following will show the comparative imports :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR NOVEMBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Entered for consumption....	\$5,375,652	\$4,399,085	\$7,167,851	\$9,232,007
Entered for warehousing....	798,147	938,056	596,068	2,864,350
Free goods	416,191	415,838	891,382	334,228
Specie.....	13,580	218,473	80,766	154,342
Total entered at the port...	\$6,603,570	\$5,971,452	\$8,736,067	\$12,584,927
Withdrawn from warehouse.	905,006	1,377,100	1,047,972	1,333,068

This shows an increase of receipts at New York for the month, of \$3,848,860, which is made up in great part of the goods warehoused, the increase in that item being \$2,268,282. This large increase in the warehousing business has not been altogether owing to the pressure in the money market, and the consequent storage of goods to avoid the payment of duties; nor to so great an extent as many think, to the earlier shipments of goods for the spring trade. It is owing chiefly to the increase of direct shipments to New York of goods destined for other ports, which are entered at that port in bond, and being transferred for other custom-house districts, do not appear in the withdrawals for consumption, or in the stock on hand; and to the large reshipments to foreign ports. This is more fully seen in the comparison for the previous months of the year:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Entered for consumption....	\$92,606,150	\$100,615,950	\$98,248,742	\$144,007,797
Entered for warehousing....	14,339,596	12,852,967	7,730,384	22,122,462
Free goods	8,266,538	9,144,170	11,276,195	11,721,200
Specie.....	16,109,965	2,024,167	2,295,410	2,317,901
Total entered at the port...	\$131,316,249	\$124,637,254	\$119,550,731	\$180,169,360
Withdrawn from warehouse.	10,231,496	12,781,070	14,511,468	14,204,069

This shows an increase in the imports at New York for the last eleven months, of \$60,618,629 as compared with the same period of 1852, \$55,532,106 as compared with 1851, and \$48,853,111 as compared with 1850. The large item of specie in the summary for the last-named year includes, however, nearly ten millions of California gold received via New Grenada. A careful comparison of the above shows that the increased receipts for warehousing have run throughout the season, while the withdrawals for consumption are actually less. The stock on hand is but little larger than it was at the same date of last year, so that the difference must have been transferred to other ports, or re-shipped in bond.

Many writers upon this subject seem to infer that the great increase in the imports from foreign ports is made up exclusively of dry goods, or manufactured fabrics, while it can be readily shown that only about one-half of the excess is in merchandise of this description. The following will show the comparative receipts of dry goods at the same port for the month of November, and since January 1st:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF NOVEMBER.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$879,899	\$285,808	\$633,451	\$1,012,335
Manufactures of cotton.....	267,516	264,439	370,677	654,878
Manufactures of silk.....	673,438	347,862	969,417	1,178,326
Manufactures of flax.....	323,704	321,715	459,882	512,680
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	240,445	138,685	203,849	217,279
Total.....	\$1,884,502	\$1,358,009	\$2,637,276	\$3,575,498

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$54,997	\$52,948	\$43,836	\$116,951
Manufactures of cotton.....	49,675	34,911	13,960	54,887
Manufactures of silk.....	57,088	184,560	64,497	123,471
Manufactures of flax.....	32,396	25,160	20,179	58,892
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	18,176	56,083	24,391	57,842
Total.....	\$212,332	\$353,662	\$166,863	\$412,043
Add entered for consumption.....	1,884,502	1,358,009	2,637,276	3,575,498
Total thrown on the market.....	\$2,096,834	\$1,711,671	\$2,804,139	\$3,987,541

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$79,641	\$87,820	\$58,778	\$341,764
Manufactures of cotton.....	101,690	81,037	58,056	376,111
Manufactures of silk.....	57,224	172,607	76,603	316,871
Manufactures of flax.....	49,068	101,206	9,373	146,025
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	45,597	66,542	41,123	27,448
Total.....	\$333,220	\$509,212	\$243,933	\$1,208,219
Add entered for consumption.....	1,884,502	1,358,009	2,637,276	3,575,498
Total entered at the port.....	\$2,217,722	\$1,867,221	\$2,881,209	\$4,783,717

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS FROM JAN. 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$14,483,062	\$12,668,004	\$13,790,139	\$24,001,971
Manufactures of cotton.....	9,601,966	8,941,972	8,664,810	13,377,261
Manufactures of silk.....	18,546,459	20,863,773	19,306,978	30,100,877
Manufactures of flax.....	7,045,810	5,756,705	5,654,618	7,347,873
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	2,555,614	3,421,639	3,848,048	4,967,817
Total.....	\$52,232,911	\$51,652,093	\$51,264,593	\$79,795,799

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,744,877	\$1,819,885	\$1,561,075	\$2,029,660
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,171,289	1,320,439	1,333,761	986,857
Manufactures of silk.....	1,085,084	1,554,921	1,844,230	1,340,906
Manufactures of flax.....	427,014	586,304	765,305	289,646
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	145,290	436,268	353,499	357,539
Total.....	\$4,573,554	\$5,717,817	\$5,857,870	\$5,004,608
Add entered for consumption....	52,232,911	51,652,093	51,264,593	79,795,799
Total thrown on the market.....	\$56,806,465	\$57,369,910	\$57,122,463	\$84,800,407

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$2,079,980	\$2,155,437	\$1,243,850	\$2,752,402
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,850,928	1,513,372	860,665	1,780,460
Manufactures of silk.....	1,329,806	2,461,450	1,909,168	1,931,540
Manufactures of flax.....	712,912	819,971	337,741	599,848
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	166,919	498,298	407,698	364,605
Total.....	\$6,140,545	\$7,448,528	\$4,759,122	\$7,428,855
Add entered for consumption....	52,232,911	51,652,093	51,264,593	79,795,799
Total entered at the port.....	\$58,373,456	\$59,100,621	\$56,023,715	\$87,224,654

This increase in the imports, large as it justly appears, bears no comparison to the increase in the exports, which, for the last two months, have been larger from the port of New York than ever before known:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR NOVEMBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Domestic produce.....	\$3,677,657	\$2,451,511	\$3,529,447	\$7,489,937
Foreign merchandise (free)...	37,723	62,368	27,634	48,088
“ “ (dutiable)...	676,696	397,597	541,296	739,872
Specie.....	905,394	5,033,996	809,813	3,855,775
Total.....	\$5,297,470	\$7,945,472	\$4,908,190	\$12,133,672
Total, exclusive of specie..	4,392,076	2,911,476	4,098,377	8,277,897

The increase here seen is enormous—exceeding the shipment of the same month of last year more than 100 per cent. A less comparative increase is seen in the total since January 1st, as the earliest months of the year witnessed less activity in shipments of produce:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR ELEVEN MONTHS FROM JAN. 1.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Domestic produce.....	\$40,512,499	\$36,652,339	\$37,768,933	\$53,374,056
Foreign merchandise (free)....	533,037	699,895	827,146	1,265,771
“ “ (dutiable)....	4,937,933	3,672,624	4,310,270	4,851,965
Specie.....	8,774,188	38,074,974	23,915,950	23,621,505
Total.....	\$54,757,657	\$79,099,832	\$66,822,299	\$83,113,297
Total, exclusive of specie..	45,983,469	41,024,858	42,906,349	59,491,792

The ratio of increase as shown in November has been continued throughout most of December, and there is every probability that the shipments will continue larger, at least into the spring. The following will show the comparative ex-

ports of some of the leading articles of domestic produce, from New York to foreign ports from January 1st to December 16th:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE.

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
Ashes—pots....bbls.	16,632	10,483	Naval stores....bbls.	511,926	442,489
pearls.....	1,088	796	Oils, whale....galls.	58,185	258,267
Beeswax.....lbs.	408,901	196,246	sperm.....	791,829	913,615
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>			lard.....	26,899	52,649
Wheat flour .bbls.	1,311,495	1,953,164	linseed.....	11,962	20,150
Rye flour	8,289	4,066	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Corn meal.....	44,819	42,230	Pork.....bbls.	38,747	69,537
Wheatbush.	3,012,718	6,714,871	Beef.....	47,031	48,832
Rye.....	236,460	17,421	Cut meats....lbs.	1,497,599	7,968,280
Oats.....	10,212	63,290	Butter.....	631,130	1,866,443
Barley.....	367	100	Cheese	1,063,939	7,013,097
Corn	753,928	943,935	Lard	4,440,521	6,601,537
Candles, mold. .boxes	57,490	45,990	Rice	25,206	24,349
sperm.....	3,805	5,285	Tallow.....lbs.	408,096	2,879,034
Coal	37,135	31,440	Tobacco, crude..pkgs.	24,245	23,854
Cotton	331,574	369,183	Do., manufactured.lbs.	4,515,207	5,556,464
Hay.....	7,326	4,720	Whalebone.....	1,029,148	3,008,407
Hops.....	744	325			

This shows a very large increase in breadstuffs, equal to an increase of about 1,500,000 bbls. of flour. This difference is astonishing, and will go far to explain the prosperity of the country even while passing through a financial crisis, which would otherwise have marked its progress by the ruin of all whose business had been expanded without a sufficient basis. The demand for our cereals is still large—not only from France and England, but also from central Europe. How this demand is to be supplied, now that inland navigation at the North has been closed, has puzzled many. The railroads can bring but little more than sufficient to supply the consumption at home, while the stock at the northern seaports is small. We think, however, that sufficient attention has not been given to the grain resources of the South. The crop of wheat in the Southern States has been of unusually good quality; and the condition of shipping parcels has been farther improved by a care in preparing it for market never before exercised. The White Wheat has been carefully separated from the Red, and thus the prices realized for the cereal crop at the South will be far beyond the usual average. There were some exceptions to this in the earlier shipments, sent forward in too green a state, but all of the later parcels are unusually fine. We shall be much mistaken if the clearances of grain from southern ports to foreign countries for the present and coming season do not show a large increase. Cotton comes forward slowly, owing to a variety of causes heretofore stated, in addition to the scarcity of funds in the cotton districts, which prevents as much activity in this trade as could be desired.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF ILLINOIS.

STATEMENT OF THE CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS, ON MONDAY,
APRIL 4, 1853.

Names of Banks.	RESOURCES.				LIABILITIES.	
	Notes discounted.	Stocks of other States.*	Specie.	Total resources.	Capital stock paid in.	Circulation.
Alton Bank	\$15,660	\$40,400	\$11,740	\$123,787	\$57,240	\$30,291
Belvidere Bank		50,000	15,500	119,605	67,900	50,000
Bank of Galena		50,000	50,000	50,000
Bank of Rockford		50,000	11,391	107,096	57,101	49,995
Bank of Elgin	55,600	52,000	7,526	132,834	50,000	35,913
Clarks' Exchange Bank		59,000	44,898	660,301	288,380	249,019
Commercial Bank	30,000	50,000	11,481	105,579	50,000	50,000
Central Bank	73,000	80,000	26,740	254,972	89,500	80,000
Du Page County Bank	35,380	50,000	6,206	128,555	50,000	49,784
Marine Bank of Chicago		50,000	51,118	381,088	150,000	167,468
Merchts' & Mechs' Bk of C. ..	125,588	50,000	14,665	260,296	50,000	54,700
Stock Security Bank	40,350	95,000	15,597	194,159	95,000	74,000
The City Bank of Chicago		60,000	10,475	127,785	66,000	59,985
The Rock Island Bank	4,076	50,000	10,183	129,602	50,000	49,995
The Quincy City Bank	49,992	50,000	44,497	149,489	50,000	14,025
The Chicago Bank	25,000	218,842	85,583	85,576
The Bank of Ottawa	19,209	50,000	12,163	107,526	50,000	46,185
The Bk. of Lucas & Simonds ..	58,745	50,000	12,000	129,496	58,751	33,745
The Bank of America		10,000	50,000	100,645	50,000	50,000
The Union Bank		50,000	15,729	109,995	60,000	49,995
The Merchts' & Farmers' Bk. ..	73,801	56,350	15,645	202,745	77,000	55,339
The Southern Bk of Illinois		50,000	6,970	81,643	50,000	15,773
The McLean Co. Bank		50,000	50,000	50,000
		586,404	1,152,950	419,531	3,926,049	1,702,456
					1,351,788	

SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE ABOVE-NAMED BANKS.

Notes and bills discounted	\$586,404
Due from other banks and bankers	880,541
Stocks of other States at the rate at which received by Auditor	1,152,956
Illinois stocks at rate at which received by Auditor—interest paying ..	408,939
Do. non-interest paying	89,177
Notes of other banks on hand	233,576
Real estate	13,202
Expense account	12,171
Amount paid for stocks over value at which received by Auditor	129,554
Total resources	3,926,049

LIABILITIES.

Capital stock paid in	\$1,702,456
Circulation	1,351,788
Due other banks and bankers	315,441
Bills which banks have accepted and are liable for ..	14,116
Due to depositors	522,476
Profits due company stockholders	19,769
Total liabilities	3,926,049

Cents are omitted in the above table for the sake of convenience.

* At the rate at which received by the Auditor.

THE GOLD FIELDS OF THE WORLD.

A little work entitled "Notes on the Distribution of Gold throughout the World," from the pen of a gentleman named Wyld, has just been issued in London. It furnishes much useful information. According to Mr. Wyld, small particles of gold are sometimes found in the Cornish mines and tin-streams of Great Britain, but heretofore not to a sufficient extent to authorize any particular attention to be paid to them. Gold, in small quantities, has often been found in various other sections of England and Scotland. In Ireland, the only remarkable gold district is on the east shore in Wicklow. It was found in 1796, and the amount raised did not exceed £10,000. In France, gold is found at Gardette, in the Isere, in the rivers of the Rhone, Rhine and Garonne, and in the mountains of Cevennes and Languedoc.

"The rivers of Spain and Portugal have gold sands but they are not now wrought. At Adissa, in the St. Ubes district, a gold mine was for some time worked; the produce in 1815 was 41 lbs.; 1816, 18 lbs.; 1817, 11 lbs.; 1818, 12 lbs.; 1819, 13 lbs.; 1820, 12 lbs.; 1822, 18 lbs. The total value of the produce in seven years was only about £5,000.

"Except in the Alpine regions, no considerable traces of gold are found in Italy. In Savoy, it is reported, river deposits have lately been discovered. In Sicily a mine, stated to have been formerly worked for gold, lies in the mountains north-west of Taormina. Pesterana, in the Alps, is one of the oldest gold mines.

"In Germany and the Germanic States gold has been found in many localities, and was formerly extracted to a great extent in Bohemia. It is also obtained from the Hartz, the Mulda, Bavaria and Baden. Gold is got from the arsenious ores of Silesia. In Hungary gold is raised from the mines of Schenmitz and Kremnitz, being the richest for this mineral in Europe. The yield is taken at 1,050 lbs. of gold yearly, worth £35,000. In 1848, 40 lbs. of gold was found in granite, in Salzburg, and 3 lbs. in Illyria. Transylvania is another rich district, and yields 1,375 lbs. of gold yearly. In the Banat of Temeswar 60 lbs. of gold was obtained in 1848. One estimate of the whole produce of gold in Austria is 4,000 lbs. yearly, and in twenty-six years 85,000 lbs. In Bohemia are gold washings on the Iser. In Salzburg are gold mines which yielded 35 lbs. of gold yearly. In the Tyrol are gold washings, two miles from Zell. In the Danube are washings, between Vienna and Pesth.

"In Sweden there are several gold mines. That of Adelfors, in Smaland, formerly yielded 15 to 20 lbs. of gold yearly, but now, it is said, only 1 or 2 lbs. The working began in 1738. The Fahlun mines yield about 2 lbs. yearly. In Norway is the gold mine of Edswold, in the Rommarge district. At Kongsberg, in Norway, gold has been found which was coined by Christian IV.

"Turkey has gold in several districts.

"In Russia the chief gold deposits are on the Asiatic side of the Ural mountains; but in 1739 a gold mine was found and worked in Olonetz. The total produce of Russia from Europe and Asia was, in the beginning of this century, estimated at 42,675 lbs., or about £1,800,000 yearly. In 1830 the amount was estimated at 15,000 lbs., and at the like amount in 1831; in 1835 at 12,280 lbs.; in 1842 at 41,009 lbs.; in 1843 at 55,000 lbs.; in 1847, 73,300 lbs.; in 1848, 75,600 lbs.; in 1849, 69,600 lbs. The production of gold in Russia in 1847 was about £4,000,000; in 1848 something more, and in 1849 about £3,500,000. The following shows the gradual produce of gold from Siberia:—

	lbs.		lbs.		lbs.
1829.....	55	1834.....	2,871	1839.....	8,025
1830.....	465	1835.....	4,054	1840.....	11,202
1831.....	453	1836.....	4,610	1841.....	15,720
1832.....	965	1837.....	5,828	1842.....	27,732
1833.....	1,600	1838.....	8,460	1843.....	40,863

"In Hindostan gold is found in several regions; also in China, Malacca, Japan, Borneo, New Guinea, New Caledonia, and New Zealand. The chief Australian gold diggings hitherto reported are connected with the basin of the river Murray. By the latest accounts, gold was found over a length of 400 miles and a breadth of 500 miles. The first shire in which gold was found was that of Bathurst, in New South Wales.

"In 1850 the discoveries of gold in La Chaudiere river and the neighboring brooks,

in Lower Canada, was confirmed. This gold basin is of considerable extent, reaching into Maine, and yields auriferous quartz. In the winter of 1852, rich and extensive gold deposits were discovered, on the estate of the British American Land Company, in the district of Sherbrooke.

"The eastern gold region of the United States is considered to begin in Virginia, extending all through North Carolina, along the northern part of South Carolina, and thence north-westerly into Alabama, terminating in Tennessee. The diggings are supposed to be pretty well worked out, though very productive at times. A lump from a branch of the Rocky river weighed 28 lbs. Gold is found in Virginia, and the workings in 1830 reached \$466,000, or about £100,000, and in 1843 \$1,200,000, or a quarter of a million; the whole up to that period being \$10,000,000, or £2,000,000.

"The existence of gold dust in New California was known at an early period. The gold diggings of Upper or New California now embrace the whole basin of the Sacramento. Large deposits have been found in the neighboring English settlement of Vancouver's Island, and also upon Queen Charlotte's Island. In Oregon, in Utah, and all the countries bordering on California, gold is found.

"The west coast of America is, perhaps, the region having the greatest number of gold deposits. Between 20° to 45° north lat. gold is found everywhere. In Ecuador, in Bolivia, at Caraboya and other places in Peru, great gold deposits have been recognized.

"The production of gold in Mexico, in 1844 and 1845, was about \$1,300,000 yearly, but in what proportions obtained is not known.

"In Central America gold is worked at Del Aquacato, in Costa Rica, and elsewhere. In 1823 the yield was 72 lbs., 1824, 263 lbs., and 1825, 260 lbs.

"The Isthmus of Central America, from the Bay of Chiriqui to the Gulf of Darien, is a great gold field. From the imperfect manner in which the accounts were kept of the gold products of these districts under the Spanish rule, no accurate result can be obtained; but, from the royalties paid to the provincial governments, it may be assumed that, up to the year 1804, the yearly product of gold was at least one million sterling. The sands of the beach at Panama, and the country around the city, contain particles of gold; and when the railway across the Isthmus, and the ship canal of Darien shall be completed, this country may again yield its mineral treasures of gold.

"In New Granada gold is found in the Central and Western Andes. The yield is about £500,000 yearly. In most of the rivers of the west coast of South America, and in the Cordilleras, gold is found. In Peru the average yield is £100,000 yearly. The neighboring country of Bolivia yields £60,000. There are many gold mines in Chili. In the Great Exhibition there was a lump of gold ore weighing three hundredweight. The average yearly produce is £160,000, but was formerly £400,000. The amount of gold coined in the Valparaiso mint for the six months of last year, including July, is 7,425 Spanish lbs., valued at £448,000. In Brazil the yield has been estimated at 17,000 lbs. yearly, but in the last century the average yearly value was nearly £800,000. From Paraguay a lump of gold was obtained weighing 50 lbs.

"In the north of Africa gold is found throughout the Regency. In Morocco gold is found. The chief gold mines belonging to the Pasha of Egypt are in Kordofan, on the Fazangoro. In Abyssinia a little gold is found in the rivers. In North Africa the yearly produce is reckoned at 5,000 lbs. The interior of Africa has long been known for producing large quantities of gold dust. The whole yearly yield of gold from Africa is perhaps £500,000. Close to the Ashantee country is that of the Bunkatoos, who have rich gold workings in pits. In Natal gold was discovered in 1852, on the Mooi river.

"Of the total yearly yield of gold no accurate estimate can be made. In 1800 the whole yield of gold and silver was estimated at £10,250,000. The following is an estimate of the yield of gold and silver for each of the following years:—

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
1840.....	£5,000,000	£6,750,000	£11,750,000
1848.....	7,000,000	6,750,000	13,750,000
1850.....	17,500,000	7,500,000	25,000,000
1851.....	22,500,000	7,500,000	30,000,000
1852.....	40,000,000	7,500,000	47,500,000
1853.....	45,000,000	7,500,000	52,500,000

"The whole stock of bullion of gold and silver now in circulation is estimated by various economists at £500,000,000, but complete data are wanting."

THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

One of the singular features attending the influx of gold from California and Australia, is the decline in the amount of coin and bullion held by the Bank of England. It is known that the deposits of gold bullion at the Philadelphia Mint during the year 1852 amounted to \$51,000,000 and upward, of which \$25,000,000 were re-exported from New York to Liverpool, &c., while large sums were transmitted direct from San Francisco to England.

The arrivals of gold, too, from Australia at English ports have been very heavy during the years 1852-3; but in the face of all these additions from various quarters, the amount held by the Bank of England is four millions sterling less now than in July, 1852. The largest sum ever held by the bank at any one period was £22,232,138. This was on the 10th of July last. This sum has gradually been reduced by exports of bullion to the continent, and of coin to Australia, until now the bank holds only £18,553,905. This is more than enough for the actual or prospective wants of the institution, its active circulation being less than twenty-three millions.

It was near the close of the year 1851 that the Bank of England first began to feel the effects of the large influx of gold from California. The additions from this source began in August, 1851, and were regular from week to week (with two exceptions only) until March, 1852. Up to that period the increase amounted to \$6,064,968. The additions were still large until the second week in July, when the enormous sum of £22,232,138 was in their vaults, and the gross circulation amounted to £35,878,765.

The operations of such an institution must of course be profitable, although the rate of interest during the past year was only 2 or 2½ per cent; but even at this low rate the profits must amount to more than one million sterling, or about five millions of dollars.

The public deposits are less now than in 1850, while the private accounts are larger. The public deposits show the following as the highest and lowest for the last three years:—

	Highest am ^t .	Lowest am ^t .
1850.....	£11,022,807	£4,627,318
1851.....	10,796,555	3,957,007
1852.....	9,447,516	2,802,361

The private deposits, including those of bankers, railway and joint-stock companies, show an increase during the same period, viz:—

	Highest am ^t .	Lowest am ^t .
1850.....	£11,263,012	£8,850,077
1851.....	10,075,856	8,121,431
1852.....	15,464,288	9,371,117

The *Rest* (or reserved profits) on the 7th of July, 1853, amounted to £3,149,769. This item in April, 1852, was £3,624,418, on a capital of £14,553,000, or within a fraction of 25 per cent. The stock has been for some years an eight per cent stock, giving half-yearly dividends of four per cent. The highest rate of the stock in the market last year was 234, (in August, 1852,) and the lowest quotation 215½, (in January, 1852.)

The last quotation we have seen (July 1) was 228½. On the 1st of January, 1852, the rate of interest prevailing was 2½ per cent at the bank. Such, however, was the rapid accumulation of coin and of deposits that the bank reduced the rate, at the close of April, to 2 per cent. The enlarged deposits, circulation, &c., are represented in the annexed comparative statement:—

1852.	January 3.	April 24.
Notes in circulation.....	£19,284,590	£21,599,845
Public deposits.....	9,447,516	2,993,373
Private deposits.....	9,371,117	14,472,598
Government loans.....	13,290,972	13,335,779
Other loans.....	12,214,222	10,999,619
Gold and silver.....	17,557,541	19,587,670

The large amounts of gold and silver bullion deposited at the bank are shown in the annexed summary:—

GOLD RECEIVED.—OUNCES.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
First quarter.....	326,084	332,759	1,081,959
Second ".....	321,714	513,667	1,319,538
Third ".....	520,631	592,717	1,095,514
Fourth ".....	359,532	2,002,633	1,318,644
Total	1,727,961	3,441,717	4,815,647

SILVER RECEIVED.—OUNCES.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
First quarter.....	4,112,491	4,024,614	5,070,962
Second ".....	5,155,377	3,909,671	5,683,720
Third ".....	4,435,043	5,252,508	6,858,005
Fourth ".....	5,188,230	5,052,716	4,033,347
Total received	18,891,142	18,239,510	21,646,036
Paid	19,545,010	18,215,981	21,705,064

Notwithstanding these large additions of silver, the payments were still larger—being in three years 15,345,396 ounces, and the receipts 15,183,976. The amount of silver held by the bank in 1846 was £2,727,000, while in August, 1852, it was only £18,967.

The present condition of the bank is as annexed, under date 7th July, 1853:—

LIABILITIES.

Circulation issued.....	£32,052,080	
Less on hand.....	9,204,260	£22,847,820
Capital.....		14,553,000
Rest (undivided profits).....		3,149,789
Public deposits.....		5,615,362
Other deposits.....		12,504,620
Seven day and other bills.....		1,372,642
Aggregate liabilities		£60,043,233

ASSETS.

Government debt.....	£11,015,100
Government securities.....	16,101,897
Other securities.....	14,372,331
Gold and silver.....	18,553,905
Aggregate assets.....	£60,043,233

The securities bearing interest, it would appear, amount to £41,489,328. Assuming 3 per cent as the average rate of interest, the annual income of the bank is shown to be upward of twelve hundred thousand pounds sterling.

Twenty years since the number of clerks and porters employed in the bank premises was 820; printers and engravers, 38; clerks and porters at the branches, 82; making an aggregate of 940, at an annual expense of £211,903.

At the present time the number is largely increased. Nine families constantly reside within the precincts of the bank—the houses of the secretary, chief accountant, and gate-keeper being situated around the court. The whole extent of the bank is surrounded by a parapet wall, on which thirty-four private soldiers and an officer keep watch every night. Beside these guards, there are fourteen men constantly employed, day and night, who are familiar with the labyrinthian mazes of the building, and who have fire engines at command in case of any alarm of fire.

Every department of manual labor connected with the bank, (except the manufacture of paper,) is carried on within its limits. There are three steam cylindrical presses and two hand presses kept for letter-press printing, and a steam-engine of ten-horse power constantly in use. In the bullion department are kept six weighing machines, by means of which the precise weight of all coins is determined.

RATE OF INTEREST AND PENALTY FOR USURY IN THE VARIOUS STATES.

Alabama.—The legal rate of interest is eight per cent. In usurious contracts, the principal, without any interest, may be recovered.

Arkansas.—When no rate is mentioned, it is six per cent. Parties may contract for any rate not exceeding ten per cent. Usurious contracts are void.—*Arks. Digest*, p. 613, *et seq.*

California.—When there is no express contract in writing, fixing a different rate, interest shall be allowed at the rate of ten per cent per annum, for all moneys after they become due on any bond, bill, promissory note, or other instrument of writing, or any judgment recovered before any court in this State, for money lent, for money due on the settlement of accounts, from the day on which the balance is ascertained, and for money received to the use of another.

Parties may agree in writing for the payment of any rate of interest whatever on money due, or to become due, on any contract. Any judgment rendered on such contract shall conform thereto, and shall bear the interest agreed upon by the parties, and which shall be specified in the judgment.

The parties may, in any contract in writing whereby any debt is secured to be paid, agree, that if the interest on such debt is not punctually paid, it shall become a part of the principal, and thereafter bear the same rate of interest as the principal debt.—*Stat. Cal.*

Connecticut.—Six per cent. In usurious contracts, the principal can be recovered without the interest. Persons guilty of taking usury, forfeit the whole of the interest—one-half to him who shall prosecute to effect, one-half to State Treasury.—*Rev. Stat.* of 1848, *Public Acts* of 1849, p. 47.

Delaware.—Six per cent. Whoever exacts more is liable to forfeit the whole debt—one-half to the State, and one-half to the prosecutor.

Florida.—Eight per cent by agreement; if no rate be specified, then six per cent. The person reserving a higher rate, shall forfeit the entire interest.—*Thompson's Digest*, p. 234.

Georgia.—By the statute of 1845, the legal rate of interest, (which previous to that time had been eight per cent,) was reduced to seven per cent, and the penalty for usury made a forfeiture of the whole interest, legal as well as usurious.—*See Pamphlet Act* of 1845, pp. 35 and 36.

This act took effect 17th December, 1845. All contracts previous to that date, eight per cent. Interest up to the time of payment, although not discharged until subsequently to the above-mentioned act.

Illinois.—Six per cent, where no rate is specified. By contract, parties may go as high as ten per cent. He who reserves a higher rate than ten per cent, shall forfeit three times the amount of the entire interest reserved.

Indiana.—Six per cent. Usurious interest cannot be recovered; and if paid, may be recovered back, at any time within a year after the payment. Any person receiving illegal interest shall, upon conviction, be fined double the excess of interest so taken.—*Revised Laws of Indiana*, pp. 580-583.

Iowa.—When no agreement is made respecting interest, the legal rate is six per cent. The Legislature of 1851 passed an act abolishing all usury laws.

Kentucky.—Six per cent. The agreement for usurious excess only is void.

Louisiana.—Five per cent; but parties may agree on any sum as high as eight per cent. Usurious contracts are void.

Maine.—Six per cent. If more be agreed to be taken, the debt or claim is forfeited. Usurious interest paid may be recovered.

Maryland.—Six per cent. Contracts where more is agreed for or reserved, are not void, except as to the excess.

Massachusetts.—Six per cent. When the defense of usury is established, the defendant shall recover his full costs, and the plaintiff shall forfeit threefold the amount of the interest unlawfully reserved or taken.

The party paying usurious interest may recover threefold the amount of the unlawful interest so paid.—*Supplement* of 1846, p. 388.

Michigan.—Seven per cent, with permission to agree upon any rate not higher than ten per cent for a loan of money. Contracts are not void for usury beyond the usurious excess.

Mississippi.—Eight per cent for a bona fide use of money; six per cent upon other contracts. The penalty for usury is the loss of the entire interest.—*Hutchinson's Miss Code*, p. 641.

Missouri.—Six per cent. If plea of usury be sustained, the whole interest to go to the use of common schools. A usurer may be presented by an informant, and the whole interest set off to common schools.

New Hampshire.—Six per cent, and if more be taken, the party forfeits three times the amount unlawfully taken.

New Jersey.—Six per cent, and contracts for a higher rate are void. Persons taking a higher rate, forfeit the whole value of the subject matter of the contract—one-half to the State, one-half to the prosecutor.—*Statutes of New Jersey*, p. 765.

New York.—Seven per cent. All contracts whereby a higher rate is reserved, are void. Corporations cannot set up the defense of usury.

North Carolina.—Six per cent. All contracts whereby a greater rate is reserved, are void, and the party exacting it is liable to forfeit double the amount of the debt—one-half to the State, and the other half to the person suing for the same, by action of debt, in any court of record.—*Revised Statutes*, ch. 117.

Ohio.—Six per cent. On written agreement, any rate as high as ten per cent. If more be reserved, the excess is void.

Pennsylvania.—Six per cent, and if a greater rate is attempted to be secured, the party may recover the actual sum loaned, with legal interest thereon, and a *qui tam* action must be instituted within one year from the commission of the offense, when a forfeiture is sought.

When any railroad or canal company has borrowed money and given a bond or other evidence of indebtedness in a larger sum than the amount actually received, such transactions shall not be deemed usurious.

Rhode Island.—Six per cent. In an action brought upon an usurious contract, the plaintiff can recover the principal, with legal interest and costs of suit.

South Carolina.—Seven per cent. The party reserving more, forfeits the entire interest, and must pay the costs.

Tennessee.—Six per cent, and the person exacting more is liable to a fine of not less than the amount usuriously taken.

Texas.—Eight per cent. Parties may agree upon any rate as high as twelve per cent. Any violation of this statute incurs a forfeiture of all the interest.—*Laws of Jan.*, 1840, vol. 4, p. 8.

Vermont.—Six per cent, and interest paid beyond that rate may be recovered back, with costs.—*Rev. Stat. of Vermont*, p. 366.

Virginia.—Six per cent. All usurious contracts are void, with the penalty of forfeiture of twice the amount of the debt.

Wisconsin.—Seven per cent. Parties may agree upon any rate as high as twelve, such agreement to be in writing. Any agreement for more forfeits the whole debt.—*Act of 1821*.

REVENUES COLLECTED AT PORTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

TABLE OF CUSTOM-HOUSE REVENUES COLLECTED AT THE LEADING PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1853.

New York	\$38,289,341 58	New Haven.....	\$125,173 40
Boston.....	7,203,048 52	Mobile.....	102,981 47
Philadelphia.....	4,537,046 16	Louisville	48,307 67
Baltimore.....	836,437 99	Oswego.....	128,667 27
New Orleans	2,628,421 32	Richmond.....	73,992 98
San Francisco.....	1,794,140 68	Norfolk	31,255 51
Charleston	432,299 19	All other districts.....	1,678,206 04
Portland.....	350,349 22		
Savannah.....	125,755 86	Amount of customs re-	
St. Louis.....	294,790 78	ceived during the year.	\$58,931,865 52
Cincinnati.....	251,649 90		

FINANCIAL TRANSACTIONS OF THE ROTHSCHILDS.

"In twelve years," says a recent writer, "about five hundred millions of dollars were raised by this house for different powers, by way of loan or subsidy, which were distributed in nearly the following proportions:—For England, two hundred millions; for Austria, fifty millions; for Prussia, forty millions; for France, eighty millions; for Naples, fifty millions; for Russia, twenty-five millions; for several German courts,

four millions; for Brazil, twelve millions; exclusive of various other large sums. The remarkable success of the Rothschilds, setting aside the great opportunities which they have enjoyed from favorable circumstances, may be attributed to their strict adherence to two fundamental maxims. The first, in compliance with the dying injunctions of the founder of the house, is the conducting of all their operations entirely in common. Every proposition of magnitude made to one of them is submitted to the deliberations of all. No project is adopted until thus fully discussed, and it is then executed by united efforts. A second principle is, not to aim at exorbitant profits—to set definite limits to every operation—and, so far as human prudence and foresight can do, to render it independent of accidental influences. In this maxim lies one of the main secrets of their strength."

BRITISH POST-OFFICE RETURNS.

The post-office returns of 1852 have just been issued, and embrace—1st, the number of letters delivered in the United Kingdom; 2d, the revenue; 3d, the cost of management; 4th, the payments to railways; and 5th, the number and amount of money orders. The following table of these particulars, in a condensed form, will show the annual progress that has been made from 1839 (the last year of the old system) to the present time:—

Year.	Estimated number of letters.	Net revenue after paying cost of management.	Cost of management.	Payments to Railways included in cost of management.	Money-orders issued.	
					Number.	Amount.
		£	£	£		£.
1839.....	82,470,596	1,633,764	756,999	52,860	188,921	312,124
1840.....	168,768,334	500,789	858,677	52,362	587,797	960,975
1841.....	196,500,191	561,249	938,168	96,190	1,552,845	3,127,507
1842.....	208,434,450	600,641	977,504	78,464	2,111,980	4,337,177
1843.....	220,450,306	640,217	980,650	97,526	2,501,523	5,112,840
1844.....	242,091,684	719,957	985,110	92,493	2,806,803	5,695,395
1845.....	271,410,789	761,982	1,125,594	181,111	3,176,126	6,418,361
1846.....	299,586,762	825,112	1,138,745	110,430	3,515,079	7,071,056
1847.....	322,146,243	984,496	1,196,520	121,859	4,031,185	7,908,177
1848.....	328,830,184	740,429	1,403,250	318,631	4,203,651	8,151,294
1849.....	337,399,199	840,787	1,324,562	230,079	4,248,891	8,152,643
1850.....	347,069,071	803,898	1,460,785	400,964	4,439,713	8,494,498
1851.....	360,647,187	1,118,004	1,304,163	242,848	4,661,025	8,880,420
1852.....	379,501,499	1,090,419	1,343,907	329,963	4,947,825	9,438,277

* With regard to the column headed "net revenue," it must be mentioned that the apparent falling off in 1848 and 1850 arose from sums of upwards of £190,000 having been disbursed in each of those years for the conveyance of mails by railway in previous years. Coupled with these accounts we have a statement of the money-order office for 1852. The total cost for the United Kingdom was £70,669; and, as the amount of commission received was £82,333, there was a profit in this department of £11,664. But for an excess of \$1,056 in the expenditure for the Irish offices over the receipts, the surplus would have been £12,720, as the gain for England and Wales was £12,442, and for Scotland £278.

HINTS TO BANK CUSTOMERS.

A correspondent of the *Quincy (Mass.) Patriot* suggests the following rules for the guidance of bank customers:—

I. Keep a good deposit; it will not only assist you in getting discounts, but an unexpected call will not then put you in anxious locomotion to borrow from a friend: so you will save your friend, your credit, and your shins.

II. Offer for discount good business paper rather than accommodation notes.

III. Always apply for discount some little time before you need the money, as such customers are preferred.

IV. Circulate the bills of the bank.

V. Never let a note lie over that has your name upon it.

VI. Bear in mind that a bank is often without funds, and however desirous the directors may be to serve customers, there are times when they are not able to do so.

VII. If a young voyager upon the uncertain sea of trade and traffic wishes bank accommodation, it is often for his interest to give in a true statement of his pecuniary condition; this will insure him all the bank facilities his circumstances will warrant—and a lack of such definite information often causes loans to be withheld from worthy applicants.

RATES OF EXCHANGE AT NEW ORLEANS.

COMPARATIVE RATES OF EXCHANGE AT NEW ORLEANS ON LONDON, PARIS AND NEW YORK, ON THE 1ST OF EACH MONTH FOR THREE YEARS PAST. (SIXTY DAY BILLS.)

	1852-3.			1851-2.			1850-1.		
	London. prem.	Paris. per dol.	N. York. dis.	London. prem.	Paris. per dol.	N. York. dis.	London. prem.	Paris. per dol.	N. York. dis.
Sept... 10	5 15	1½		10½	5 12	2	9½	5 28	1½
Oct... 9½	5 18	1½		10½	5 15	2½	9½	5 28	1½
Nov... 8½	5 22	2½		7	5 25	3½	7½	5 32	2½
Dec... 8½	5 25	2½		9½	5 20	2	8	5 30	1½
Jan... 8	5 22	2½		9½	5 20	2½	7½	5 28	2½
Feb... 8½	5 20	2½		8½	5 25	2½	7½	5 30	2½
March... 9	5 18	1½		9	5 22	2½	7½	5 23	2½
April... 8½	5 20	1½		9	5 22	1½	10	5 10	½
May... 9½	5 16	1½		8½	5 25	1½	10	5 12	½
June... 9½	5 16	1½		9½	5 20	1½	10½	5 10	½
July... 9½	5 12	1½		10½	5 20	1	10½	5 08	1½
Aug... 9½	5 08	1½		10	5 18	1½	9½	5 10	1½

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

PROGRESS OF BRITISH AND COLONIAL SHIP BUILDING.

A return, just printed, by order of the House of Commons, on the motion of Mr. Ingraham, of the Shipping and Tonnage of the United Kingdom, furnishes an account of the progress of British and Colonial ship building from the year 1814 to the present time.

One of the most remarkable facts presented by this statement is the tendency shown to increase the size of vessels. In 1814 the average capacity of all the ships constructed in Great Britain during that year was 122 tons, while in 1852 it was 235 tons. Hence, although the aggregate of new tonnage per annum has nearly doubled, the figures having been 86,075 tons in 1815, against 167,491 last year, the number of vessels built each year has remained nearly stationary, the total having been 706 in 1815 and 712 in 1852. In colonial built ships this tendency is observable to a still greater extent, their average capacity having been only 84 tons in 1815, while in 1851 it had risen to 207 tons. At the same time, the advance of the colonies had been such, that notwithstanding the vast increase in the average capacity of their ships, the number constructed likewise shows an extraordinary augmentation. In 1815 they built 131 vessels, with a total capacity of 11,069 tons, and in 1851 the number was 680 vessels, with a capacity of 141,116 tons. In the face of all the apprehensions on account of the repeal of the Navigation Laws, the total tonnage of English vessels annually constructed since that event has shown a steady increase, and last year it was larger than at any former time, with the exception of 1840 and 1841, when an unusual addition was made in consequence of a speculative mania that had prevailed for some time at Sunderland. In the colonies the years 1840, 1841, 1842 and 1848 were the most active ever known; and although after the latter year, during which a great stimulus had been imparted by the demand for freight occasioned by the famine which had just been experienced on this side, a reaction took place, there has subsequently been a steady recovery, until in 1851 the figures again rapidly approached the total from which they had receded. For 1852 the colonial returns are not yet complete, but they will probably show a considerable further advance.

The same document gives an account of the number of vessels belonging to the several ports of the British empire in each year, from 1814 to 1852 inclusive. From this

it appears, that in 1814 the total of vessels was 24,418, with an aggregate capacity of 2,616,965 tons, employing 172,786 men and boys. Last year the total number was 34,402 vessels, with a tonnage of 4,424,392 tons, employing 243,512 men and boys. During the interval of thirty-nine years, therefore, the increase of vessels was equal to 41 per cent, of tonnage to 72 per cent, and of men to 40 per cent—the augmentation of capacity and the improvements in construction causing a comparative economy in the number of persons employed.

A return is likewise given of the number of foreign ships purchased by British owners since the repeal of the Navigation Laws, namely—in 1850, 1851, and 1852. From this it appears that the totals were—57, with a capacity of 10,499 tons, in 1850; 26, with a capacity of 8,049 tons, in 1851; and 28, with a capacity of 6,724 tons, in 1852.

From the same return we also find, that in the year 1852 there were built and registered in the United Kingdom 650 steam and sailing vessels (timber,) equal to a tonnage of 139,451, and 62 vessels (iron) of 28,040 tons. In the same year 2,485 vessels, with a tonnage of 432,545, were sold and transferred in the United Kingdom.

We also find that, in 1852, 733 sailing, and 9 steam vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 143,784, belonging to the United Kingdom, were wrecked; and 78 sailing, and of 29 steam-vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 7,212, also belonging to the United Kingdom, were broken up.

THE AMERICAN PROVISION TRADE FOR THE SEASON 1852-3.

[FROM THE LIVERPOOL TIMES.]

In the last annual review of the provision trade at this port, an opinion was expressed that the high prices then current would stimulate the packing of beef to a greater extent than required. Messrs. W. Gardner & Co. report that the result has been in accordance with this view, the import exceeding by over 10,000 tierces that of any former year. The consequence of this great increase has been a dull and unsatisfactory trade to the importer and dealer, prices opening high, but slowly receding to about the present quotations, a further decline being arrested by the satisfactory state of the deliveries, which continued good throughout, as is evidenced by the stock now left on hand being only some 3,000 tierces greater than that of last year, notwithstanding our increased import.

The import of pork this year, (1853,) in round numbers, shows 10,500 barrels from America and Canada, 16,000 barrels from France, and 11,500 barrels from Ireland. The quality of French and Irish maintains its superiority over the American; hence, the latter has ruled at prices considerably under the others, and has been, in a corresponding degree, difficult of sale. That there is no reason why this inferiority should exist is proved by the fact that one brand of Philadelphia pork has, this season, sold at the price brought by the finest French. The contractors for the government navy have obtained a large advance over last year's prices, and Hamburg curers ask 85s. per barrel for winter shipment.

The supply of American bacon is over four-fold that of the year 1851-52, but of this excess only a very small part was originally intended for this market. In the next season there will, probably, be a large business in bacon; the comparatively moderate prices likely to rule for hogs in America have induced packers to make arrangements for curing more extensively for this market, and sales have already been made to some extent for forward shipment. The quality of the hams heretofore received from America, with few exceptions, has been very indifferent.

The supply of lard shows an increase over that of the two previous years, but the fluctuations in price have been much less than in 1851-2, good to fine lard not having touched a lower point than 50s. to 52s., at which figures it remained only for a very short time in Spring, when the heavy part of the New Orleans shipments came to hand.

The receipts of cheese are fifty per cent. over last year's, with the prospect of a continued increase. In June the duty was reduced from 5s. to 2s. 6d. per cwt. without causing any sensible reduction in price. As anticipated at this period last year, prices have ranged high; and, though a slight reaction may fairly be looked for, from the present extreme figures, yet it is evident low rates are not likely. The make of English cheese is fair in quantity, but the prosperous state of the consuming classes has given such an impetus to consumption, that stocks have been reduced to a lower

point than ever previously known; hence, until there is again an accumulation, prices cannot decline. A first-class article, as usual, brings a relatively higher price than an inferior.

Subjoined is a comparative statement of imports, stocks, and prices of beef, pork, bacon, cheese, butter and lard, at the close of the last nine years:

COMPARATIVE IMPORTS FOR THE SEASONS 1846-7, 1847-8, 1848-9, 1849-50, 1850-51, 1851-2, and 1852-3, YEARS ENDING 30TH SEPTEMBER.

	Beef. tcs.	Pork. bbis.	Bacon. cwts.	Hams. cwts.	Lard. tons.	Cheese. boxes.	Butter. firkins.
1847 ...	19,446	35,634	53,523	20,313	4,893	105,284	9,622
1848....	16,428	31,511	119,158	16,296	9,572	106,155	3,430
1849....	26,558	37,152	224,794	22,768	4,892	113,780	8,590
1850....	21,081	20,177	156,347	15,863	10,049	108,696	7,973
1851....	27,519	5,762	66,161	5,714	3,749	67,479	12,124
1852....	24,814	1,629	26,103	94	3,349	3,890	5,029
1853....	41,325	38,164	118,906	10,159	4,756	57,855	5,235

The last year's totals include American, Continental and Irish; hitherto, in this table, American only has been noted.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF STOCKS IN THIS MARKET, YEAR ENDING 30TH SEPTEMBER.

	Beef. tcs.	Pork. bbis.	Bacon. cwts.	Cheese. tons.	Lard. tons.
1849.....	6,275	13,335	28,830	..	1,110
1850.....	5,389	9,321	9,126	..	2,030
1851.....	1,156	150	200
1852.....	6,339	555	1,200	..	120
1853.....	10,652	7,307	16,400	87	580

COMPARATIVE PRICES AT THE CLOSE OF THE SEASON, (END OF SEPTEMBER,) IN EACH YEAR.

Year.	Beef. per tc.	Pork. per bbl.	Bacon. per cwt.	Ham. per cwt.	Lard. per cwt.	Cheese. per cwt.
1843...	75 to 90	38 to 44	.. to to ..	34 to 37	48 to 50
1844...	55 " 65	48 " 50	.. " " ..	35 " 37	46 " 50
1845...	72 " 75	52 " 60	.. " " ..	44 " 46	56 " 63
1846...	70 " 76	53 " 60	33 " 44	.. " ..	36 " 43	52 " 56
1847...	86 " 92 6	60 " 67	32 " 57	30 " 42	54 " 58	52 " 58
1848...	87 " 92	40 " 62	30 " 45	30 " 34	39 " 43	48 " 54
1849...	76 " 85	37 " 66	24 " 38	27 " 42	35 " 37	30 " 42
1850...	78 " 82 6	40 " 55	27 6 " 33	22 " 30	34 6 " 35	25 " 40
1851...	70 " 75	58 " 62	38 " 43	30 " 40	50 " 52	25 " 42
1852...	97 6 " 120	76 " 81	47 " 49	38 " 46	63 " 65	24 " 43
1853...	80 " 100	70 " 75	44 " 50	40 " 48	58 " 60	30 " 58

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF CATTLE AT LIVERPOOL AND OF BACON AND BUTTER IN BELFAST.

Years.	Comparative prices at Liverpool Cattle Market, end of each year.				Comparative prices of butter and bacon in Belfast.			
	Beef. per lb.	Mutton. per lb.	Pigs. per 120 lbs.		Bacon. per cwt.	Butter. per cwt.		
1843.....	4½ to 5	4½ to 5½	31 to 32		35 to 38	68 to 70		
1844.....	4½ " 5½	5 " 5½	45 " 48		34 " 44	74 " 76		
1845.....	5½ " 5½	4½ " 6½	48 " 49 6		42 " 45	82 " 84		
1846.....	5½ " 5½	5½ " 6½	54 " 56		55 " 57	87 " 89		
1847.....	5½ " 5½	5 " 5½	62 " 63		64 " 72	87 " 88		
1848.....	4½ " 5½	5½ " 6½	57 " 60		60 " 64	72 " 80		
1849.....	4½ " 5½	5 " 5½	45 " 46		48 " 50	60 " 66		
1850.....	3 " 4½	5 " 5½	40 " 42		37 " 42	64 " 70		
1851.....	3 " 4½	5 " 5½	42 " 44		44 " 48	78 " 80		
1852.....	4 " 5	5½ " 6	43 " 46		50 " 56	72 " 80		
1853.....	5½ " 6	6 " 7	58 " 58 6		58 " 60	94 " 99		

RATES OF FREIGHT TO LIVERPOOL AND LONDON.

The *Shipping List* publishes the following corrected table of freights from New York to Liverpool and London for the last eight years—that is, from 1846 to 1853:—

	To LIVERPOOL.				To LONDON.			
	Flour.		Grain.		Flour.		Grain.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
January	3	a 3	3	10 a ..	4	a 4	6	11 a ..
February	2	a 3		8 a ..	3	6 a
March	2	3 a 2	6	9 a ..	3	a 3	6	...
April	1	9 a	...	7 a ..	3	a	9 a ..
May	1	9 a 2	.	7 a ..	2	6 a	8 a ..
June	3	a	...	9 a ..	3	3 a	9 a ..
July	2	6 a	...	8 a ..	3	a 3	3	9 a ..
August	2	a	...	8 a ..	2	9 a	9 a ..
September	2	3 a	...	8 a ..	2	9 a 3	.	9 a ..
October	3	a	...	9 a ..	4	a	9 a 10
November	3	6 a	...	12 a ..	4	a 4	6	12 a ..
December	4	9 a 5	.	15 a ..	5	6 a	15 a ..
Average	2s. 8d.		9½d.		3s. 6d.		10½d.	
1847.								
January	5	a 5	3	18 a 19	5	a 5	6	16 a 17
February	7	a ..		23 a 25	7	a	23 a 25
March	8	a 8	9	27 a 28	8	6 a	24 a 29
April	7	a	22 a 24	7	a 7	6	20 a 24
May	3	a ..		10 a ..	4	a	19 a 13
June	2	a 3	.	8 a 9	3	a 3	6	10 a 11
July	3	a 3	6	11 a ..	3	a 3	6	11 a ..
August	3	6 a 3	9	10 a ..	3	9 a	10 a 11
September	1	6 a	...	6 a 7	2	6 a 2	9	7 a 8
October	1	6 a	...	5 a 6	2	9 a 3
November	1	6 a	...	6 a
December	1	6 a	...	6 a
Average	3s. 9d.		13d.		4s. 9d.		15½d.	
1848.								
January	1	3 a	...	6 a
February	1	6 a	...	6 a 7	2	6 a
March	1	a 1	3	4 a 5	2	6 a
April	4 a 5
May
June	4 a 5
July	1	6 a	...	5 a 6
August	1	a ..		4 a
September	2	3 a	...	6 a 7
October	2	6 a	...	7 a 8	3	a
November	2	3 a 2	6	7 a ..	2	6 a 3
December	2	a	6 a 7	2	6 a 2	9	...
Average	1s. 8d.		6d.		2s. 8d.		...	
1849.								
January	2	3 a	...	6 a ..	2	6 a
February	2	a ..		7 a ..	2	6 a
March	2	a ..		7 a ..	2	6 a 3
April	1	9 a	...	4 a 5	2	a
May	2	3 a	...	6 a 7	2	a
June	1	9 a	...	5 a 6	2	a
July	1	6 a	...	5 a 6	2	a
August	1	3 a 1	6	4 a 5	1	9 a
September	6 a 1	.	3 a ..	1	6 a
October	6 a	...	3 a
November	1	6 a 2	.	4 a ..	2	a
December	1	6 a 1	9	4 a 5	2	a
Average	1s. 7½d.		5½d.		2s. 1d.		...	

	To LIVERPOOL.				To LONDON.			
	Flour.		Grain.		Flour.		Grain.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1850.								
January	1	6 a	4	a	1	9 a		
February	1	6 a	4	a 5	1	6 a 2		
March	1	6 a 2	5	a 6	1	6 a		
April	1	6 a 2	4	a	1	6 a		
May	1	a	2	a 3	1	3 a		
June			3	a				
July	10	a	3	a	1	a		
August	9	a	3	a	9	a		
September	1	9 a	5	a	1	6 a 1 9		
October	1	4 a 1 6	4	a 5	1	7 a		
November	1	3 a 1 4	4	a 5	1	9 a		
December	10	a 12	3	a	1	6 a		
Average	1s.	3½d.	4d.		1s.	5½d.		
1851.								
January	1	6 a	4	a	1	7 a 1 9		
February	9	a	3	a				
March	12	a 12½	4	a				
April			4	a	1	6 a		
May	1	3 a	4	a	1	6 a		
June	1	3 a	4	a 5	1	9 a		
July	1	9 a 2	6	a	1	9 a		
August	12	a 13	3	a 4	1	9 a		
September	10	a 11	3	a	1	6 a		
October	8	a	3	a	1	6 a		
November	10	a 12	4	a	1	6 a 1 9		
December	12	a 13	4	a	1	9 a 1 10		
Average	1s.	1¼d.	4½d.		1s.	7½d.		
1852.								
January	9	a	3	a	1	9 a		
February	12	a	3	a	1	6 a 1 9		
March	1	9 a 1 10	5	a 6	2	a		
April	1	8 a 1 9	5	a	1	9 a 2		
May	1	3 a 1 4	4	a	1	6 a		
June	12	a	3	a 4	1	6 a 1 9		
July	12	a	4	a	1	6 a		
August	9	a 10	3	a 4	1	6 a		
September	1	3 a 1 4	5	a	1	9 a 2		
October	1	a 1 2	5	a	2	3 a 2 6		
November	2	a	6	a	2	6 a 2 9		
December	3	6 a	6	a	3	6 a		
Average	1s.	4¼d.	4½d.		1s.	11½d.		6½d.
1853.								
January	3	6 a	11	a	3	6 a		
February	3	a 3 6	10	a 11	2	3 a		
March	2	6 a 2 9	9	a	2	6 a 2 10		
April	2	9 a 3 3	6	a	2	9 a 3		
May	2	3 a	5	a 6	2	7 a 2 10		
June	1	9 a	5	a	2	a		
July	1	7 a 1 9	5	a	1	10 a 2 2		
August	2	6 a	7	a	2	7 a 3		8 a 9
September	2	6 a	8	a	3	a		9 a 10
October	2	9 a 3	10	a	3	6 a 3 9		12 a
Average for 10 mos.	2s.	6d.	8d.		2s.	10d.		10½d.

COMMERCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

It appears from an official statement of the Commerce of Nova Scotia for 1852, that the total value of exports of the province was £970,780, and of imports £1,194,173. Of the exports, £62,675 was to Great Britain, and £257,849 to the United States. Of the imports, £427,532 was from Great Britain, and £347,843 from the United States.

PRICES OF PORK AND BEEF IN NEW YORK.

The following is a table showing the price of pork and beef in the city of New York, for the months of January, April, July, and October, of each year, for fourteen years, including 1852:—

Articles.	Jan.	April.	July.	Oct.
1839—Mess pork.....	\$23 50	\$22 21	\$17 56	\$16 55
Prime pork.....	19 00	18 71	14 08	13 40
Mess beef.....	16 00	15 50	15 50	14 00
Prime beef.....	12 00	11 75	11 50	10 00
1840—Mess pork.....	14 73	15 00	15 25	15 66
Prime pork.....	11 44	12 50	13 86	14 11
Mess beef.....	12 58	13 88	14 25	11 80
Prime beef.....	8 50	9 75	10 00	7 43
1841—Mess pork.....	13 21	12 25	10 97	10 34
Prime pork.....	11 81	11 00	9 06	8 34
Mess beef.....	10 18	9 25	9 69	8 41
Prime beef.....	6 43	6 12	6 25	5 06
1842—Mess pork.....	9 97	9 00	8 83	9 50
Prime pork.....	8 14	7 75	7 50	6 50
Mess beef.....	8 25	8 00	8 00	8 03
Prime beef.....	5 25	4 50	3 17	3 19
1843—Mess Pork.....	9 41	9 12	11 39	11 37
Prime pork.....	6 69	7 47	9 57	10 09
Mess beef.....	6 78	7 75	8 40	4 40
Prime beef.....	3 94	5 58	6 25	8 84
1844—Mess pork.....	10 25	9 37	8 75	8 50
Prime pork.....	8 38	7 00	6 75	7 00
Mess beef.....	7 00	6 25	5 50	5 00
Prime beef.....	4 87	4 25	3 13	3 00
1845—Mess pork.....	9 25	13 75	13 00	13 50
Prime pork.....	7 13	10 75	10 50	10 75
Mess beef.....	7 25	9 00	9 00	8 00
Prime beef.....	4 75	6 31	5 87	4 09
1846—Mess pork.....	13 25	11 00	10 00	10 75
Prime pork.....	10 37	9 75	8 00	9 50
Mess beef.....	8 40	8 25	7 75	7 50
Prime beef.....	5 40	5 50	4 75	6 50
1847—Mess pork.....	10 31	18 00	16 25	14 75
Prime pork.....	8 62	13 00	13 50	11 25
Mess beef.....	9 00	12 50	13 79	8 00
Prime beef.....	7 00	9 00	9 50	7 50
1848—Mess pork.....	11 75	10 13	10 50	12 75
Prime pork.....	7 18	9 00	8 13	10 00
Mess beef.....	8 62	9 13	12 50	12 50
Prime beef.....	5 75	6 00	6 50	6 50
1849—Mess pork.....	13 75	10 75	10 50	10 12
Prime pork.....	11 75	8 37	9 00	8 25
Mess beef.....	11 00	11 50	12 50	11 75
Prime beef.....	7 00	8 25	8 75	9 50
1850—Mess pork.....	10 37	10 00	10 62	11 00
Prime pork.....	9 25	8 25	8 62	8 37
Mess beef.....	10 00	10 00	9 50	10 00
Prime beef.....	6 75	6 75	5 75	4 00
1851—Mess pork.....	12 25	13 50	14 50	15 25
Prime pork.....	8 75	11 25	12 75	12 75
Mess beef.....	10 00	10 50	10 75	9 75
Prime beef.....	5 00	5 50	6 75	5 50
1852—Mess pork.....	14 75	18 00	19 25	10 25
Prime pork.....	13 50	16 75	17 00	15 50
Mess beef.....	10 00	12 00	17 00	12 50
Prime beef.....	5 00	6 75	10 50	5 50

SHIP BUILDING IN MAINE.

Maine stands among the foremost as a ship building state. The following table shows the increase of tonnage of ships built and owned in that State, from the year 1836 to 1852:—

	Ton'ge built.	Ton'ge owned.		Ton'ge built.	Ton'ge owned.
1836.....	27,022	276,859	1845.....	31,105	320,060
1837.....	25,475	250,569	1846.....	49,748	358,123
1838.....	24,322	270,232	1847.....	63,549	384,353
1839.....	27,706	282,282	1848.....	89,974	452,329
1840.....	38,937	308,066	1849.....	82,256	466,489
1841.....	26,874	305,291	1850.....	91,252	501,422
1842.....	38,041	281,330	1851.....	77,399	536,316
1843.....	15,121	285,381	1852.....	110,047	592,806
1844.....	20,200	305,331			

Large quantities of valuable timber lands have been in the market for many years, at the value of \$1 50 per acre. There is no part of the country that offers better prospects than Maine for the capitalists. The new ships built and sold in 1852 were of the more valuable class, averaging probably from \$50 00 to \$60 00 per ton, giving an export trade in ships of from two and a half to three millions of dollars, in the year 1852. The income from freighting ships is a large item in the business of Maine.

The great ship owning States in 1852 were as follows:—

New York.....tons.	1,134,831	Pennsylvania.....tons.	208,171
Massachusetts.....	767,766	Louisiana.....	208,171
Maine.....	592,806	Maryland.....	206,247

The rate per cent of increase from 1836 to 1852 inclusive, in the ownership of vessels by the above-named States, is as follows:—

New York has increased..	166 per cent.	Pennsylvania has increased	138 per cent.
Massachusetts " ..	56 "	Louisiana " ..	128 "
Maine " ..	114 "	Maryland " ..	99 "

The *Bangor Mercury* furnishes the annexed summary of lumber surveyed at Bangor from July 1st to October 1st, 1853, compared with the amount surveyed during the corresponding period of 1852:—

	1852.	1853.
Green Pine.....feet.	46,065,180	32,280,110
Dry Pine.....	6,450,943	1,909,142
Spruce	23,530,429	27,615,920
Hemlock, Hardwood, Bass, etc.	3,775,777	3,584,880
Total	79,882,279	65,396,352
Amount surveyed from Jan. 1st to Oct. 1st, 1852		137,022,093
For same time in 1853		132,557,043

Every article used in the construction of ships, as well as labor, has advanced largely in value during the last two years. The contract price per ton has, therefore, kept pace with this enhanced value of materials. Iron, foreign and domestic, partakes of this greater value.

COASTING TRADE OF FRANCE.

The official returns of the movement of the coasting trade of France for 1852 have just been published. The general movement, whether from one sea to another, or within the same sea, represents 2,544,785 tons, having been 2,121,520 tons in 1851, and 1,918,030 tons in 1848. The average from 1847 to 1851 inclusively is 2,145,675 tons, which gives 19 per cent for the quinquennial period. The portion of the Atlantic in this movement is 1,835,590 tons, and that of the Mediterranean 709,195 tons, or 72 per cent for the Atlantic and 28 per cent for the Mediterranean. For the 2,544,785 tons thus conveyed, the six principal ports are thus classified:—

Bordeaux.....tons.	272,135	Havre... ..tons.	138,535
Marseilles.....	188,717	Nantes.....	111,086
Cette.....	154,577	Rouen.....	109,973

The amount of the six ports coming next in importance varies from 96,128 to 43,314 tons, and the ten next ports are down for 47,721 tons at most, and 20,290 at least. The movement in the leading articles is as follows:—

Wine.....tons.	431,643	Building materials.....tons.	242,172
Timber.....	312,735	Oysters.....	112,000
Corn and flour.....	288,690	Coals.....	98,528
Salt.....	272,749	Brandies.....	76,222

The trips made are 76,051; of which 8,099 are to be assigned to Nantes, 6,796 to Bordeaux, 3,937 to Brest, 3,514 to Marseilles, 2,560 to Havre, and 2,226 to Libourne. These 76,051 vessels represent 2,806,726 tons as their real tonnage, whatever may be their real cargo carried. With respect to tonnage, Marseilles ranks first, and then Bordeaux, Havre, Nantes, Rouen and Cette. The vessels employed in the coasting trade to the thirteen ports of Algeria where a custom-house is established, have made 2,035 trips, representing 60,391 tons. In that amount, Algiers is down for 977 trips, and 34,419 tons; Bone for 419 and 12,289; Meroel-Kebir for 405 and 11,620; Tenez for 288 and 10,900; Bougia for 245 and 8,520; and Stora, 187 and 8,078; the seven other ports had 1,599 trips and 34,947 tons. During the year 1852 the general movement of navigation, foreign, colonies, fisheries, and coasting, presents the following results for the 242 ports of France:—

	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.
Arrival.....	119,410	6,150,842	736,570
In Atlantic ports.....	94,267	4,287,613	563,129
Mediterranean ports.....	25,143	1,863,220	171,441
Departure.....	119,947	6,226,230	634,878
Atlantic ports.....	94,719	4,354,561	463,098
Mediterranean ports.....	25,228	1,871,669	171,780
Total of arrivals and departures.....	239,357	12,377,072	1,371,448

The number of vessels in ballast has been 52,157, of which 24,667 are on arrival, and 27,490 on departure.

COMMERCE WITH MEXICO.

The following table derived from official documents, discloses some interesting facts. It would seem that the largest share of Mexican commerce and intercourse was with the United States, and which, indeed, was greater than that with all other nations. Of the steamers, 145 were from the United States, and of the whole number of vessels 435 were American, while England supplied only 108, France 69, and Spain, (the talked of protectorate,) 60:—

	Tonnage.	Passengers arrived.	Passengers left.
Vera Cruz.....	28,203	1,429	1,346
Tampico.....	7,704	178	126
Matamoras.....
Campeachy.....	6,992	4,975	1
Sisal.....	4,239	43	95
Tobasco.....	3,739	81	21
Hualtulco.....
Acapulco.....	131,330	31,242	28,540
Manzanillo.....	1,402	11
San Blas.....	30,321	4,863	4,920
Mazatlan.....	30,762	5,095	5,000
Allata.....	1,158	81	9
Guayamas.....	4,835	718	35

Among the arrivals were 219 steamers, viz: 145 at Acapulco, 7 at Vera Cruz, 4 at Tampico, 27 at San Blas, 35 at Mazatlan, and 1 at Guayamas. Of the vessels, 68 belonged to Mexico, 435 to the United States, 108 to England, 69 to France, 60 to Spain, 13 to Hamburg, 24 to Peru, 5 to Belgium, 1 to Portugal, 1 to Nicaragua, 1 to Sweden, 1 to Hanover, 8 to Bremen, 1 to Venezuela. Of the classes of vessels besides steamers there were 55 frigates (vessels of war,) 114 barks, 165 brigs, 63 hermaphrodite brigs, 155 schooners, 68 pilot-boats. Total number of vessels, with the 219 steamers, 837. Total tonnage, 256,692; total passengers arrived, 43,816; total passengers left, 40,153.

LUMBER TRADE OF GEORGIA.

The lumber trade of this State is assuming an increasing importance each year, in consequence of the decrease of white pine in the forests of Maine and other Northern States; and also from the character of the pitch pine becoming better known. Formerly, its uses were partial, but now it is found equally valuable with oak for the beams, planking, and many other parts of a ship. It is used instead of white pine for deck planks, and it is also taking the place of spruce and pine for the beams and sleepers of large brick buildings. Its firmness renders it particularly valuable for the latter purpose.

We find, by reference to our tables, that the exports of Savannah have increased within ten years over five hundred per cent, and we hear no complaints about the decrease of the forests. About one-half of the State is covered with pine, and the growth of all trees is so rapid in this climate, that there need be no fear about exhausting the supply, unless the demand should far exceed that of previous years. Unlike the forests of the North, the same land will produce again and again the same growth. The lands of Maine that produce the white pine, are generally sterile, and after the pines are cut off, the next growth is always different.

The Savannah exports of lumber, to date from September 1, 1852, are 30,530,000 feet, and by the end of the year (Sept. 1) will probably reach 31 millions. The exports from the Altamaha River, at Darien, for the same time, are about 23 millions; and probably the exports from the St. Mary's and Saltilla rivers and other places, will swell the total to near sixty millions of feet. This includes square timber as well as sawed lumber. We think the value at shipping ports would be nearly one million of dollars, an amount equal to the value of the rice crop of the State. Almost the whole value of the lumber consists of the labor required to cut and manufacture it, and transport it to its place of destination; and the distribution of this labor is so varied, that it seems to give a greater amount of good to the working classes than any other business that can be followed.

The Altamaha will afford a greater supply than any river in the whole Southern country; and we find that well-directed efforts have been made to prepare mills near Darien, to manufacture all that may be cut by the hardy lumbermen.

We think about one-half of the exports from Savannah is in square timber. For ten years previous to September 1, 1851, the exports to foreign ports were about equal to those coastwise, with one exception; of the 18,000,000 exported in 1846, over thirteen were to foreign ports, and more than eleven to Great Britain.

About two-thirds of the exports of 1852 were to foreign ports, and of the past year three-fifths are to foreign ports. Great Britain is the best customer, taking usually about half the foreign exports to her ports direct, besides the large amounts that go to the provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. Within the past year several cargoes have been shipped to Spain for the use of the government docks.

We have no means of referring to the exports of previous years from any place except Savannah, but below we annex a table of the totals for twelve years:—

EXPORTS OF LUMBER AND TIMBER FROM SAVANNAH.

Year ending September 1, 1842.....	8,390,400 feet
“ “ “ 1843.....	7,519,550 “
“ “ “ 1844.....	4,983,251 “
“ “ “ 1845.....	8,270,582 “
“ “ “ 1846.....	18,585,644 “
“ “ “ 1847.....	10,731,388 “
“ “ “ 1848.....	16,449,558 “
“ “ “ 1849.....	15,380,200 “
“ “ “ 1850.....	17,719,100 “
“ “ “ 1851.....	17,764,300 “
“ “ “ 1852.....	25,508,500 “
From Sept. 1, '52, to Aug. 11, 1853.....	30,530,050 “

EXPORT TRADE OF PORTS IN ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, AND IRELAND.

The following table, compiled from official documents, shows the comparative exports of British and Irish produce and manufactures from certain ports of England, Scotland, and Ireland, in 1850 and 1851, distinguishing the ten principal articles of

export, with the amount of Customs duties collected at the same ports in the same years:—

	EXPORTS.		CUSTOMS DUTIES.	
	1850.	1851.	1850.	1851.
London.....	£14,127,527	£14,489,494	£11,095,145	£11,241,281
Liverpool.....	34,891,847	37,918,640	3,356,570	3,502,909
Hull.....	10,366,610	10,126,421	383,519	352,559
Bristol.....	362,039	419,958	1,051,892	1,100,509
Southampton.....	1,859,647	1,916,737	56,065	90,523
Newcastle.....	920,068	939,141	331,960	327,122
The Clyde.....	4,234,604	4,046,814	1,172,631	1,177,064
Dundee.....	91,672	66,890	65,183	63,342
Leith.....	366,880	389,293	531,220	499,204
Aberdeen.....	4,305	9,682	88,244	83,645
Dublin.....	50,354	50,070	874,943	893,383
Cork.....	116,268	109,404	246,462	236,530
Limerick.....	8,437	2,870	160,178	159,431
Belfast.....	56,506	50,183	352,658	369,145

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION ON THE HUDSON RIVER.

Thirty-two years ago there were but twenty-two sailing-vessels navigating the Hudson, and by them was conducted all the freighting business of the river, as steamboats carried only passengers. In 1848, this number had increased to 615; in 1849, 610; in 1850, 667; in 1851, 633; and in 1852, 569. The great bulk of the freighting business is now done by steamboats and barges.

The number of vessels navigating the river for a few years past, as reported by the harbor-master to the Legislature, was as follows:—

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Schooners.....	284	302	339	332	329
Sloops.....	331	308	325	301	240
Barges.....	115	119	119	129	181
Steamers.....	36	40	39	42	39
Propellers.....	5	4	5	8	9
Brigs.....	3
Scows.....	17	12	15	12	9
Total.....	788	785	845	814	807

By the foregoing tables it will be seen that the river tonnage has more than doubled in twelve years, and that for the last five years the increase has been gradual but not large. This is in part attributable to the fact that a large number of canal boats go directly through to New York from the lake ports.

BELFAST (IRELAND) AS A COMMERCIAL PORT.

The importance of Belfast (Ireland) as a commercial port will be best understood by a reference to the following table, compiled by Braithwaite Poole, Esq., of a return of vessels registered at each port in Ireland, with the tonnage entered and cleared in 1851:—

	Vessels.	Tons.	Tonnage entered and cleared.
Belfast.....	462	74,770	1,089,096
Cork.....	422	51,702	681,152
Dublin.....	444	39,353	1,393,822
Limerick.....	101	12,291	154,591
Newry.....	148	9,568	171,268
Waterford.....	190	22,750	359,563
All other ports.....	482	51,000	1,146,886
Total.....	2,249	2,261,434	4,996,378

By this statement it will be seen that the trade of Belfast, with only a population of 110,000, comes within a trifle of Dublin, and nearly equal to one-half of all the other ports in Ireland added together.

IMPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES INTO THE UNITED STATES,

EMBRACING WOOLENS, COTTONS, HEMPEN GOODS, IRON, AND MANUFACTURES OF, SUGAR, HEMP, SALT, AND COAL.

The following statement of the value of certain articles imported during the years ending on the 30th of June, 1844, 1845, 1846, 1848, 1849, 1850, 1851, and 1852, (after deducting the re-exportation;) and the amount of duty which accrued on each during the same periods, respectively, is derived from a statement of N. Sargeant, Esq., Register of the Treasury, January 5, 1853:—

Articles.	1844.		1845.	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	\$9,408,279	\$3,313,495	\$10,504,423	\$3,731,014
Cottons	13,236,830	4,850,731	13,360,729	4,908,272
Hempen Goods	865,427	213,862	801,661	198,642
Iron, and manufactures of..	2,395,760	1,607,113	4,075,142	2,415,003
Sugar	6,897,245	4,597,093	4,049,708	2,555,075
Hemp, unmanufactured...	261,913	101,338	140,372	55,122
Salt	892,112	654,881	887,359	678,069
Coal	203,681	133,845	187,962	130,221
Total	34,161,247	15,472,358	34,003,356	14,671,418

Articles.	1846.		1848.	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	9,935,925	3,480,797	15,061,102	4,196,007
Cottons	12,857,422	4,865,483	17,205,417	4,166,673
Hempen Goods	696,888	138,394	606,900	121,380
Iron, and manufactures of..	3,660,581	1,629,581	7,060,470	2,118,141
Sugar	4,397,239	2,713,866	8,775,223	2,632,567
Hemp, unmanufactured...	180,221	62,232	180,335	54,100
Salt	748,566	509,244	1,027,656	205,531
Coal	336,691	254,149	426,997	128,099
Total	32,813,533	13,653,796	50,344,100	13,622,498

Articles.	1849.		1850.	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	13,503,202	3,723,768	16,900,916	4,682,457
Cottons	15,183,759	3,769,565	19,681,612	4,896,278
Hempen Goods	460,335	92,067	490,077	98,015
Iron, and manufactures of..	9,262,567	2,778,770	10,864,680	3,259,404
Sugar	7,275,780	2,182,734	6,950,716	2,085,215
Hemp, unmanufactured...	478,232	143,470	574,788	172,435
Salt	1,424,529	284,996	1,227,518	245,504
Coal	382,254	114,676	361,855	108,557
Total	47,970,658	13,089,956	57,052,157	15,547,865

Articles.	1851.		1852.	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	19,239,930	5,331,600	17,348,184	4,769,083
Cottons	21,486,502	5,348,695	18,716,741	4,895,327
Hempen Goods	615,239	123,048	343,777	68,755
Iron, and manufactures of..	10,780,312	3,234,094	18,843,569	5,632,484
Sugar	13,478,709	4,043,613	13,977,393	4,193,218
Hemp, unmanufactured...	212,811	63,843	164,211	49,263
Salt	1,025,800	205,060	1,102,101	220,420
Coal	478,095	143,429	405,652	121,695
Total	67,316,898	18,493,382	70,901,628	19,950,245

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

POSTAL CONVENTION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND BREMEN.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES AGREED UPON BETWEEN THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT OF THE HANSEATIC REPUBLIC OF BREMEN, MODIFYING THE ARRANGEMENT ENTERED INTO BY SAID POST DEPARTMENTS IN 1847 FOR THE RECIPROCAL RECEIPT AND DELIVERY OF MAILS TO BE CONVEYED BY THE UNITED STATES AND BREMEN LINES OF STEAMERS, DIRECT BETWEEN NEW YORK AND BREMENHAVEN.

ARTICLE 1. The post-office of New York shall be the United States office of exchange, and Bremen the office of exchange of that republic, for all mails transmitted under this arrangement.

ART. 2. The international correspondence, conveyed either by United States or by Bremen steamers, as hereinafter stated, between the United States or its territories, and Bremen, will be subject to the following postage charges, viz.:—

Postage on each letter or packet not exceeding half an ounce in weight	10 cents
Above half an ounce, and not over one ounce	20 "
Above one ounce, but not exceeding two ounces	40 "

And the postage will increase in this scale of progression, to wit: Additional 20 cents for each additional ounce, or fraction of an ounce.

Payment in advance shall be optional in either country. It shall not, however, be permitted to pay less than the whole rate; and no account shall be taken of the prepayment of any fraction of that rate.

ART. 3. All the States belonging to the German-Austrian Postal Union, respectively, are to have the advantage of the rate of ten cents, established by the preceding article, (2d,) whenever their postage to and from Bremen, for letters to and from the United States, shall be reduced to the uniform rate of five cents, or less. On all correspondence for or from such of said States as shall not so reduce their rates, the charge between the United States and Bremen, by either of the two lines, will be fifteen cents the single rate.

And optional prepayment, a regular progressive scale, &c., upon the same principles as in article 2d, shall be admitted and observed.

ART. 4. On all letters originating and posted in other countries beyond the United States, and mailed to, and deliverable in Bremen, or originating and posted in countries beyond Bremen, and mailed to, and deliverable in the United States or its territories, the foreign postage, (other than that of Bremen, and other than that of the United States,) is to be added to the postage stated in article 2d or 3d, as the case may be. And the two Post-office Departments are mutually to furnish each other with lists stating the foreign countries, or places in foreign countries, to which the foreign postage, and the amount thereof, must be absolutely prepaid, or must be left unpaid. And until such lists are duly furnished, neither country is to mail to the other any letter from foreign countries beyond it, or for foreign countries beyond the country to which the mail is sent.

ART. 5. Newspapers not weighing more than three ounces each, may be sent by the United States and Bremen steamers when the whole postage of two cents is prepaid thereon at the mailing office. The postage on pamphlets and magazines per ounce, or fraction of an ounce, shall be one cent, prepayment of which shall likewise be required in both countries. Said newspapers, pamphlets, and magazines, are to be subject to the laws and regulations of each country, respectively, in regard to their liability to be rated with letter postage when containing written matter, or for any other cause specified in said laws and regulations. They must be sent in narrow bands, open at the sides or ends.

ART. 6. The postage for which the United States and Bremen post-offices shall reciprocally account to each other upon letters which shall be exchanged between them, shall be established, letter by letter, according to the scales of progression determined by the preceding 2d and 3d articles, as follows, viz.:—

The Bremen office shall pay to the United States office for each unpaid letter, weighing half an ounce or less, originating in the United States and destined for

Bremen, as well as for each letter of like weight prepaid in Bremen and destined for the United States, when conveyed, under article 2d, by United States

steamer	9 cents
And when by Bremen steamer	5 "
When conveyed, under article 3d, by United States steamer	14 "
And when by Bremen steamer	5 "

The United States office shall pay to the Bremen office for each unpaid letter, weighing half an ounce or less, originating in Bremen and destined for the United States, as well as for each letter of like weight prepaid in the United States and destined for Bremen, when conveyed, under article 2d, by United States

steamer	1 cent
And when by Bremen steamer	5 cents
When conveyed, under article 3d, by United States steamer	1 cent
And when by Bremen steamer	10 cents

Respecting the postage for newspapers, pamphlets, and magazines received in either country, the whole is to be paid to the United States office when the same are sent by United States steamers, and one-half to the United States and the other half to the Bremen office when sent by Bremen steamers.

It is understood and agreed that, of the portion of the postage for which the United States office is to account to Bremen, as well as of what Bremen may collect, all but one cent a single letter is to go to the benefit of the proprietors of the Bremen line of steamers.

Letter bills and acknowledgments, as well as forms of account, shall be made to conform to these articles.

ART. 7. The accounts between the two Departments shall be closed at the expiration of each quarter of the calendar year, by quarterly statements and accounts prepared by the General Post-office in Washington; and, having been examined, compared, and settled by the Post-office of Bremen, the balance shall be paid, without delay, by that Department which shall be found indebted to the other. If the balance is in favor of Bremen, it shall be paid over by the United States at Bremen; and if in favor of the United States, it shall be paid over by Bremen at Washington, or to the General Post-office at London, to the credit of the United States, as the Postmaster-General of the United States shall direct. Neither office is to charge to the other any commissions upon any postage it may collect. The 20 per cent commission to the Postmaster of Bremen, stipulated in article 6th of the arrangement of 1847, is to cease from and after the date when these articles take effect; and Bremen is to receive no other compensation for the services required by the arrangement of 1847 than as provided in article 6th of the present convention.

ART. 8. The steamers of the two lines shall be required to convey all dead and returned letters, and the official communications of the respective post departments of the United States and Bremen, free of charge.

ART. 9. This arrangement, which supersedes the temporary arrangement of 6th July, 1853, is to go into effect on the 15th of August, 1853, and it is to be continued in force until annulled by mutual consent, or by either post department after the expiration of three months' previous notice to the other; and it may also cease whenever the Bremen steamers cease running.

In witness whereof, we have hereto set our names and affixed the seals of our respective offices, this 4th day of August, one thousand eight hundred fifty-three, at the city of Washington.

JAMES CAMPBELL,
Postmaster-General.
RUDOLPH SCHLEIDEN,
Minister resident of the
Republic of Bremen.

BRAZILIAN CUSTOM HOUSE FORMALITIES.

The ship *Maria*, belonging to Siffken & Ironsides, returned in ballast on her last voyage from Rio; and, on the way, touched at Pernambuco, where one of the crew bought three parrots and a monkey. The vessel was not allowed to leave that port till this cargo was regularly manifested; and we have before us a sheet of foolscap, on which the parrots and monkey are duly entered, and their shipment, in conformity with Brazilian law attested by the formal signature of nine several officials and the appropriate seal.

LAW RELATING TO THE NEW RECEIPT STAMP IN GREAT BRITAIN.

In consequence of some doubts having been entertained on one or two points connected with the British Stamp Act, the following queries were submitted by a firm in the city of London to the Chancellor of the Exchequer:—

1. Does the purchase of goods for money over the counter of a shop or elsewhere, where no bill is desired or given, require a stamped receipt, should the purchase exceed £2?

2. Does a stamp attached to the back of a common banker's check, and written over with the name of the party receiving the money, fulfil the requirements of the new act, as to the use of the stamp?

I have just settled two accounts; one person required the stamp to be attached to the back of the banker's check, drawn in the usual form, and my name written over it; the other required the stamp to be affixed to the bottom of the account, and written over it in the same way.

Mr. R. W. Wilbraham, by direction of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, has given the annexed replies:—

1. That whatever pecuniary transactions have hitherto required a receipt-stamp when amounting to £5, will now require the penny receipt-stamp when amounting to 40s. and upward, the alteration made by the recent act of Parliament consisting in fixing the price of stamps at 1d., and altering the amount of the transactions requiring a stamp from £5 to 40s.

2. That the Chancellor of the Exchequer apprehends that either a check, or any piece of paper with a receipt-stamp attached, suffices for a valid receipt.

A question having also been raised whether a letter by post acknowledging the receipt of bills of exchange, &c., required a stamp, a correspondent of the *Shipping Gazette* refers a contemporary to the fifty-fifth of Geo. III., c. 184, by which "letters by the general post, acknowledging the arrival of any bills of exchange, promissory notes, or other securities for money," are specially exempted from stamp duty, and such exemptions are declared by the new act to be still in force.

IMPORTANT TO SHIP OWNERS.

ASSORTED CARGOES—DRY GOODS—CHLORIDE OF LIME.

Our attention, says the *New Orleans True Delta*, of October 9, 1853, has been called to the condition of the assorted cargoes of the ships *Espindola* and *Hudson*, recently arrived here from New York, laden with valuable freight, chiefly for the western country. On opening the hatches it was found that all the elegant dry goods, carpetings, silks, &c., were totally destroyed; in fact were completely rotted by what on examination proved to be chlorine gas, set free by the destruction of ten casks of chloride of lime upon the first, and four casks of the same powder upon the second vessel. It is impossible to state the exact amount of the damage, but Captain Clark, one of the port wardens, our informant, estimates it at seventy or eighty thousand dollars.

The solution of the matter will be found, we presume, to be, that the manufacturer of the chloride of lime, (marked for Nashville, Tenn.,) anxious to undersell his honest neighbors, used lime for the purpose of saturation, only partially slaked, by which means much of the chlorine gas would be absorbed, and, of course, less expense incurred. In time, moisture being absorbed, the usual effect upon unslaked lime followed, the bursting of the casks in which the chloride was packed, and the extrication of the gas, which, set free, penetrated the bales and cases of valuable merchandise and ruined them, as may now be seen.

Had the chloride of lime been carefully and faithfully prepared, no such unfortunate results would have occurred, and it is melancholy to reflect upon the injury innocent persons will sustain by the avarice and dishonesty of one individual. The whole value of the chloride of lime that has worked all this ruin would probably not amount to two hundred dollars; now thousands of dollars are lost, and a plentiful crop of litigation, disappointment, and vexation, is to be gathered by the various parties interested.

CONCENTRATED MOLASSES—QUESTION OF DUTIES.

The question between Belcher & Bros. and the Custom House authorities of New Orleans, relative to the import of concentrated molasses and concentrated melado, has been finally decided by the Board of General Appraisers. The decision sustains Messrs. Belcher in all their positions in the controversy, and virtually surrenders the ground taken by the New Orleans Appraisers. The quantity in dispute amounted to ten millions of pounds of concentrated molasses, and five millions of pounds of concentrated melado, the invoice value of which, exclusive of freights, amounted to \$300,000. In making the decision a new rule has been adopted, that of adding an export duty to the invoice charges on concentrated molasses, the same as the export duty on sugar now charged by the Cuban authorities. This charge is to be affixed by the appraiser when not charged in Cuba, as it is deemed that concentrated molasses is unpurged sugar, no matter what it is made from, or how poor its quality. This latter rule will be the subject of further litigation in the courts of the United States.

We annex the official report of the General Appraisers upon the Belcher & Brothers' sugar case referred to above:—

OFFICE OF GENERAL APPRAISERS, NEW YORK, Oct. 19, 1853.

SIR:—The Board of General Appraisers, to whom was submitted the appraisement of several cargoes of concentrated melado, molasses, wet and dry "tips," imported into the port of New Orleans by Messrs. Belcher & Brothers, specified in the inclosed statement, [a list of packages with their marks, &c.] having examined the samples presented, and upon which they were required to fix the true market value at the time and place of exportation, make the following report:—

The Board assumes that both the concentrated melado and concentrated molasses are sugars in a green state, and they are borne out in this view of the case by the invoices themselves—the concentrated molasses, in every instance, being invoiced per *arroba*, as sugar, and not per keg, as molasses.

The casks are also charged as sugar casks.

The concentrated molasses is not susceptible of being gauged, which is another evidence that its proper classification is sugar.

The Board further assume that the samples of the respective lots presented for their examination should always determine the value of the whole invoice.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

G. W. POMEROY,

Chairman of Board of General Appraisers.

To HON. JAMES GUTHRIE, Sec. of the Treasury, Washington, D. C.

ISLE OF MAN TARIFF.

The following appeared in Friday's Gazette:—"After our hearty commendations. By virtue of the power vested in us under the fifth section of the Customs Tariff Act, 16 and 17 Victoria, cap. 106, to omit and re-impose the duties levied on unenumerated articles legally importable into the Isle of Man, these are to authorize you under the said section of the Customs Tariff Act, to allow all articles enumerated in the tariff of the United Kingdom, and not enumerated in the tariff of the Isle of Man, and which under the tariff of the island would be subject to an *ad valorem* duty of fifteen per cent, to be admitted free of duty so long as the order permitting such free importation shall continue unrescinded. For which this shall be your warrant. Whitehall, Treasury Chambers, this 25th day of August. (Signed) ABERDEEN, JOHN SADLER, the Commissioners of Customs. Authority to allow articles unenumerated in the tariff of the Isle of Man, and subject to an *ad valorem* duty of fifteen per cent, under such tariff, to be admitted of duty free."—*Liverpool Times*.

CHANGE IN THE WEIGHT OF A TON OF COAL.

A meeting of the coal dealers was recently held in Philadelphia, to take into consideration the propriety of changing the weight of a ton of coal from 2,240 pounds to 2,000 pounds. Mr. David E. Hance was called to the chair, and John J. Heisler appointed secretary. A document was read, signed by 90 dealers, recommending the change in the weight of a ton. A resolution was adopted, that the uniform weight of

a ton of coal, to be given in the retail sale of coal, shall be 2,000 pounds, on and after the 1st of December. The meeting, which was attended by 23 dealers, was unanimously in favor of the reduction of 240 pounds, and settled the question of the proper weight of a ton of coal.

The dealers are allowed at the mines 2,240 pounds to the ton, with an addition of five per cent for loss.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NOTICES TO MARINERS.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, NOV. 26, 1853.

SIR :—I transmit for publication in the *Merchants' Magazine*—if you should deem such a course advisable—a translated copy of a notice of the Central Marine Board in Trieste, which has been recently received at this Department, through the Austrian Legation in this city.

I am, Sir, respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. L. MARCY.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.*

TRANSLATION.

NOTICE OF THE J. R. CENTRAL MARITIME GOVERNMENT, IMPOSING LIKEWISE UPON FOREIGN VESSELS THE OBLIGATION OF KEEPING A LIGHT BURNING AT THE HEAD OF THE FOREMAST EVERY TIME THEY HAPPEN TO BE IN ANY OF THE AUSTRIAN MARITIME PORTS, HARBORS, OR OTHER ANCHORAGE GROUNDS, DURING THE NIGHT.

In virtue of the 21st paragraph of the Regulations of January 25, A. C. No. 8,025, relative to night signals to be hoisted by Austrian vessels, and also during the prevalence of fogs, all Austrian ships, whether sailing or steam vessels, ships of war as well as merchant vessels, which happen to be at anchor in Austrian ports, unless they lie close to a pier or are moored in some sheltered spot, are obliged to keep a light of a natural color burning at the head of the foremast from sunset to sunrise, so that the same may be easily seen from every point of the horizon. The aforesaid obligation, imposed with the view of preventing all dangers of collision, is now, for the same purpose, and with the modifications above-mentioned, extended, in virtue of the present notice, to all foreign vessels which may happen to be in Austrian ports, roadsteads, or other anchorage grounds on the Austrian coast, during the night; and this in accordance with the provisions that have been made in regard to national vessels, under penalty of a fine of five florins of conventional currency, to be levied upon the respective captains or ship-masters for each and every violation of the aforesaid regulation, which will go in force, as regards foreign vessels, on the 1st of July next.

The respective J. R. authorities at the various maritime ports are charged to see, both directly and by means of their dependent organs, to the faithful observance and execution of the present provision.

The J. R. Lieutenant Marshal and President,

WIMPFEN.

The J. R. Vice-President,

GUTMANSTHAL.

The J. R. Government Councillor,

WITTMAN.

TRIESTE, March 14, 1853.

CHANGES IN THE LIGHTS ON THE COAST OF NORWAY.

LINDESNAES AND LISTER LIGHTS.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, 13th Sept., 1853.

The following is an extract from a notice issued by this office on the 25th of February last:—

1. Lindesnaes Light, $7^{\circ} 3'$ east long., $57^{\circ} 58'$ north lat., 1 coal light to be altered into 1 revolving light with a flash every minute—first order; high above the level of the sea, 153 feet; visible at the distance of 22 to 24 miles.

2. Lister Light, $6^{\circ} 32' 15''$ east long., $58^{\circ} 5' 30''$ north lat., 1 revolving light with a flash every minute, second order, to be altered into 3 fixed lights, second order: 125 feet above the level of the sea: visible at the distance of 18 to 20 miles.

Her Majesty's Government has now been officially informed that the above-mentioned alterations have been carried into effect, and that those lights will re-appear on the 16th of the present month.

Lindesnaes Light will be visible in all directions. The upper portion of the light-house being constructed of iron and painted red, and the lower being of white stone, the whole building, which is 164 feet high, will be a very conspicuous beacon during the day.

At Lister the three fixed lights are in separate towers, forming an obtuse-angled triangle, with its apex toward the sea. From this tower the two others bear N. b. W. and S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., distant 154 feet, while they bear from each other N. N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. and S. S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., distant 290 feet. The seaman will therefore observe, that on any of those bearings two of the lights will be seen in one.

HVIDINGSO LIGHT.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, Oct. 18th, 1853.

The following is an extract from a notice issued by this office on the 25th of February last:—

Hvidingso light, E. long. $5^{\circ} 25'$, N. lat. $59^{\circ} 4'$, 1 coal light, to be altered into 1 fixed light, with a flash every fourth minute, second order; 140 feet above the level of the sea, and visible at the distance of 20 to 22 miles.

Her Majesty's Government has now been officially informed that the foregoing arrangement has been carried into effect; and that the light of Hvidingso appeared on the 1st of the present month, as a fixed light, varied by a flash every fourth minute.

The foregoing completes the alterations in the Norwegian lights of which notice was given on the 25th of February.

MEDITERRANEAN LIGHTS.

REVOLVING LIGHT ON CAPE GIORDAN, ISLE GOZO, MALTESE ISLANDS.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, Oct. 24th, 1853.

Notice is hereby given, that on the 15th of this month a revolving light was established on the northwest part of the island of Gozo, near Cape Giordan, in $36^{\circ} 4'$ north, and $14^{\circ} 10'$ east from Greenwich.

The period of revolution is one minute; the light is elevated 400 feet above the sea, and is visible at the distance of 24 miles when bearing from N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. round by the northward to N. W. by W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. until about 3 miles from the island; and within that distance it will be visible as far to the northward as N. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. unless concealed by intervening land.

Mr. Mainprize, the master of the *Britannia*, has drawn up the following directions concerning the light:—

Vessels bound to Malta from the westward often sight the island of Gozo on a port bearing when they have been expecting to see it to starboard, especially if the wind be from the northwest: this arises from two causes—first, a southeasterly set of the current; and secondly, from the assumption that the variation of the compass is $1\frac{1}{4}$ points, whereas it is only $14\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, or $1\frac{1}{4}$ points.

The light kept to the southward of E. S. E. will lead to the northward of the pitch of Cape St. Demetri.

If bound to Valetta, run along the north side of Gozo, which is perfectly bold, at a convenient distance according to the wind and sea till St. Elmo Light comes in sight, (which will first be seen on a S. S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. bearing,) then gradually haul to the southward.

Ball's Bank has six fathoms on it, and is reported to break in bad weather; at other times any vessel may pass over it. Cape Giordan Light kept in sight will give it a wide berth.

The same light kept in sight N. W. by W. will lead well clear of the island of Malta at from four to six miles, according to your distance from the light.

St. Elmo Light south clears the St. George Shoal, and with it on this bearing you may run for the harbor of Valetta. A day-mark will be Zabbar Gate, (the highest building on the Cottonera lines,) in line with the E. angle of Fort St. Elmo S. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.

If hove to off Valetta, waiting for daylight, there will be no danger of the Monsicar Shoal to any class of vessel as long as St. Elmo Light be kept in sight.

MEDITERRANEAN.—LIGHT ON PLANA ISLAND, COAST OF VALENCIA, SPAIN.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, Oct. 19th, 1853.

Her Majesty's Government has been officially informed that on the 1st day of next January a fixed light, varied by flashes, will be established on Plana Island, on the coast of Valencia.

The lighthouse stands in $38^{\circ} 10' 13''$ north, and $0^{\circ} 26' 22''$ west from Greenwich; it is 621 yards distant from the east point of the island, and 140 from the shore due north of it.

The light is displayed at an elevation of 92 feet above the level of the sea, and may therefore be seen from a vessel at the distance of 15 miles.

KATTEGAT.—LIGHT ON THE KOBBER GROUND.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, Oct. 26th, 1853.

Her Majesty's Government has been officially informed, that the intention of the Danish Marine Board to place a light-vessel on the Kobber Ground south of Læsø Island has been carried into effect.

In the Notice No. 140 of this office, dated August 29th, it was stated—"She will ride 3 or 4 cables' lengths S. E. b. E. (by compass) from the Nyvager, [New Beacon,] in lat. $57^{\circ} 8' 30''$ N. and long. $11^{\circ} 20' 30''$ E. from Greenwich. She will be schooner rigged, and each side painted with a white cross."

The following further particulars have now been received:—

The vessel will carry three lights, namely, two on her foremast, one above the other; the upper one at an elevation of 50 feet, the lower one 25 feet; and the third on her mainmast 40 feet above the sea, and they will be visible at the distance of 9 miles.

The vessel was moored at her station in four fathoms of water on the 20th of this month.

SANTO DOMINGO LIGHT—WEST INDIES.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, October 3d, 1853.

Her Majesty's Government has been officially informed that on the 14th of August last, a fixed light was established in the battery of San Jose at the port of Santo Domingo.

The Light Tower is 113 feet above the level of the sea, and the light is 100 feet high, and visible in all directions from seaward, bearing from west, round to nearly east, at the distance of 9 miles.

The cupola of the tower is painted white; it stands in $18^{\circ} 28' 5''$ N. and $69^{\circ} 52' 30''$ West, on the bearing of N. W. by W. by compass, from Point Torrecillo distant 1,423 yards.

Masters of vessels bound to Santo Domingo roads from the eastward, are reminded, that having passed Point Causedo, the light tower being seen over the land to the northward of Point Torrecillo, great caution will be required in rounding this point, to avoid a reef which extends to the southwestward from it, and which does not always show itself by the sea breaking on it.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE RAILWAYS OF THE UNITED STATES.

PREPARED EXPRESSLY FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

The number of miles of railway now in operation upon the surface of the globe is 34,776, of which 16,180 are in the Eastern Hemisphere, and 18,590 are in the Western; and which are distributed as follows:—

	Miles.		Miles.
In the United States.....	17,317	In Belgium	532
In the British Provinces.....	823	In Russia.....	422
In the Island of Cuba.....	359	In Sweden.....	75
In Panama	31	In Italy.....	170
In South America	60	In Spain	60
In Great Britain	6,976	In Africa.....	25
In Germany	5,340	In India.....	100
In France	2,480		

The longest railway in the world is the New York Central, which, with its branches, is 621 miles in length, and constructed at a cost of \$24,933,340.

The total number of railways completed in the United States is 256; the number of railways partially completed is 56; and the number in course of construction is 84. The total number of miles of railway in operation is 17,317; constructed at a cost of \$489,603,128; and the number of miles in course of construction is 12,526.

The State of Massachusetts has one mile of railway to each seven square miles of its geographical surface. Essex County, in that State, with a geographical surface of 400 square miles, has 145 miles of railway facility, which is a ratio of one mile of railway to each three square miles of geographical surface.

For the names, locality, length, and cost of the railways of the United States, the reader is referred to the table below.

MAINE.

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Androscoggin	September 15, 1852	36	..	\$1,000,000
Androscoggin & Kennebec	December 1, 1850	55	..	2,064,458
Atlantic & St. Lawrence.....	January 29, 1853	149	..	4,242,823
Bangor & Piscataqua.....	December 18, 1836	12	..	350,000
Buckfield Branch.....	December 5, 1848	10	..	370,000
Calais & Baring.....	December 20, 1851	6	..	100,000
Franklin.....	November 25, 1851	9	..	270,000
Penobscot & Kennebec.....		..	56
Portland & Kennebec.....	November 1, 1852	69	..	2,514,056
Portland, Saco & Portsmouth.....	November 22, 1842	52	..	1,301,883
York & Cumberland.....		19	34	449,425

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Ashuelot	December 31, 1850	24	..	496,985
Boston, Concord & Montreal.....	May 30, 1853	93	..	2,540,217
Cheshire	November 20, 1849	54	..	2,584,143
Cochecho	October 15, 1849	18	..	500,000
Concord.....	November 10, 1846	35	..	1,385,788
Contoocook Valley.....	December 5, 1850	14	..	219,450
Great Falls.....	October 1, 1843	3	..	60,000
Manchester & Lawrence.....	December 19, 1849	26	..	717,543
Freat Falls & Conway.....	November 30, 1849	13	..	300,000

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Merrimac & Connecticut River		52	24	\$1,190,994
Northern.....	November 9, 1849	82	..	3,016,634
Portsmouth & Concord.....	August 22, 1852	40	..	1,400,000
Sullivan.....	December 4, 1850	25	..	673,500
White Mountain.....	July 31, 1853	15	..	500,000
Wilton.....	September 29, 1851	18	..	600,000

VERMONT.

Bennington Branch.....		..	6
Connecticut & Passumpsic.....		61	53	1,500,000
Rutland & Burlington.....	December 31, 1851	119	..	3,430,599
Rutland & Washington.....	November 30, 1851	12	..	250,000
Vermont & Canada.....	October 31, 1850	38	..	1,200,000
Vermont Central.....	November 1, 1849	115	..	5,785,596
Vermont Valley.....	December 20, 1851	24	..	1,000,000
Western Vermont.....	June 25, 1852	53	..	1,000,000

MASSACHUSETTS.

Amherst & Belchertown.....		26	12	700,000
Berkshire.....	December 1, 1842	21	..	600,000
Boston & Lowell.....	June 24, 1835	28	..	1,995,249
Boston & Maine.....	July 24, 1843	83	..	4,092,927
Boston & Providence.....	June 11, 1835	53	..	3,546,204
Boston & Worcester.....	July 3, 1835	68	..	4,845,967
Cape Cod Branch.....	November 20, 1853	38	..	633,907
Charles River Branch.....	December 31, 1852	12	..	160,729
Connecticut River.....	November 1, 1847	52	..	1,801,946
Danvers & Georgetown.....	December 31, 1853	14	..	300,000
Dorchester & Milton.....	May 1, 1847	3	..	124,718
Eastern.....	November 9, 1840	75	..	3,621,874
Essex.....	March 1, 1849	21	..	609,007
Fall River.....	June 9, 1845	42	..	1,050,000
Fitchburg.....	March 5, 1845	69	..	3,633,674
Fitchburg & Worcester.....	February 11, 1850	14	..	312,219
Grand Junction.....		7	..	1,282,073
Harvard Branch.....	December 31, 1849	1	..	25,701
Lexington & West Cambridge.....	September 1, 1846	7	..	237,328
Medway Branch.....	December 31, 1852	4	..	37,088
Lowell & Lawrence.....	July 1, 1848	12	..	346,063
Nashua & Lowell.....	October 8, 1838	15	..	651,215
New Bedford & Taunton.....	July 2, 1840	21	..	520,476
Newburyport.....	December 31, 1852	15	..	255,614
Norfolk County.....	April 23, 1849	26	..	1,245,928
Old Colony.....	November 10, 1845	45	..	2,293,535
Peterboro' & Shirley.....	February 15, 1848	14	..	263,540
Pittsfield & North Adams.....	October 8, 1846	18	..	443,678
Providence & Worcester.....	October 20, 1847	43	..	1,731,498
Salem & Lowell.....	August 5, 1850	17	..	362,672
Saugus Branch.....	February 1, 1853	9	..	128,857
Southbridge & Blackstone.....	September 30, 1853	27	..	500,000
South Reading Branch.....	September 1, 1850	8	..	236,227
South Shore.....	January 1, 1849	11	..	428,831
Stockbridge & Pittsfield.....	January 1, 1850	22	..	448,700
Stoney Brook.....	July 1, 1848	13	..	265,813
Taunton Branch.....	August 8, 1834	12	..	307,136
Stoughton Branch.....	April 7, 1845	4	..	93,433
Troy & Greenfield.....		31	36	700,000
Vermont & Massachusetts.....	February 20, 1849	77	..	3,451,629
Western.....	December 21, 1841	156	..	9,953,759
West Stockbridge.....	November 30, 1838	3	..	41,516
Worcester & Nashua.....	December 15, 1848	46	..	1,321,946

CONNECTICUT.

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Air line.....		22	73	\$500,000
Collinsville Branch	December 31, 1851	11	..	275,000
Danbury	May 26, 1852	22	..	500,000
Hartford, Providence, & Fishkill..	October 31, 1850	51	..	1,313,819
Housatonic	February 12, 1840	110	..	2,500,000
Housatonic Branch	December 31, 1850	11	..	275,000
Middletown Branch.....	November 30, 1851	10	..	250,000
Naugatuc	October 31, 1849	62	..	1,368,152
New Haven & Hartford.....	December 26, 1841	62	..	1,650,000
New Haven & New London	June 20, 1852	55	..	1,700,000
New Haven & New York	November 24, 1849	76	..	4,978,487
New Haven & Northampton.....	October 23, 1850	45	..	1,500,000
New London & Stonington.....		..	10
N. London, Willimantic & Palmer..	September 1, 1850	66	..	1,450,411
Norwich & Worcester.....	November 30, 1840	66	..	2,596,488

RHODE ISLAND.

Providence & Stonington.....	November 10, 1837	50	..	2,614,484
------------------------------	-------------------	----	----	-----------

NEW YORK.

Albany & Susquehanna	140
Attica & Allegany		30	44	800,000
Buffalo, Corning & New York.....		45	88	900,000
Buffalo & State Line.....	February 23, 1852	69	..	1,920,270
Canandaigua & Jefferson	September 15, 1851	47	..	987,627
Canandaigua & Niagara Falls.....	August 1, 1853	92	..	2,000,000
Cayuga & Susquehanna.....		35	..	1,070,786
Central.....	June 10, 1853	621	..	24,933,340
Genesee Valley	December 31, 1853	49	..	1,000,000
Hudson & Berkshire.....	November 15, 1844	31	..	824,331
Hudson River	October 1, 1851	144	..	10,527,654
Lake Ontario, Auburn & Ithaca	73
Lebanon Springs.....		..	22
Lewiston.....	November 10, 1840	10	..	120,000
Long Island.....	August 5, 1844	95	..	2,446,392
New York & Erie.....	July 15, 1851	464	..	27,551,207
New York & Harlem.....	January 19, 1852	131	..	6,102,931
Northern, (Albany).....	November 5, 1853	32	..	1,000,000
Northern, (Ogdensburg).....	October 1, 1850	118	..	4,933,030
Oswego & Syracuse	December 31, 1835	35	..	607,804
Potsdam & Watertown.....		..	83
Rensselaer & Saratoga.....	November 25, 1836	25	..	774,495
Rochester & Lake Ontario.....	May 18, 1853	7	..	200,000
Rome, Watertown, St. Vincent ...	August 19, 1851	96	..	1,693,711
Sacketts Harbor & Ellisburg	December 31, 1852	18	..	201,320
Saratoga & Schenectady.....	November 30, 1832	22	..	471,568
Saratoga & Washington.....	December 24, 1845	41	..	1,832,946
Sodus Bay & Southern.....		..	34
Syracuse & Binghamton.....		..	80
Troy & Bennington.....	August 16, 1852	50	..	1,000,000
Troy & Greenbush.....	June 13, 1845	6	..	294,795
Troy & Rutland.....	June 28, 1852	32	..	329,577

NEW JERSEY.

Belvidere and Delaware		34	29	700,000
Burlington and Mount Holly.....	December 31, 1850	6	..	75,000
Camden and Absecom.....	December 31, 1853	60	..	1,500,000
Camden and Amboy	July 6, 1831	90	..	3,245,721

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Camden and Amboy Branch.....	November 30, 1840	26	..	\$520,000
Camden and Woodbury.....	October 31, 1847	9	..	100,000
Morris and Essex.....	December 26, 1851	44	..	980,918
New Jersey.....	June 20, 1836	31	..	680,000
New Jersey Central.....	July 2, 1852	75	..	2,764,866
Paterson.....	November 25, 1834	17	..	500,000
Ramapo.....	October 24, 1850	16	..	470,000

PENNSYLVANIA.

Alleghany and Portage.....	November 30, 1833	28	..	700,000
Beaver Meadow.....	October 31, 1837	26	..	150,000
Beaver Meadow and Branches....	December 20, 1837	12	..	100,000
Blairsville Branch.....	November 25, 1851	3	..	60,000
Carbondale and Honesdale.....	October 24, 1837	21	..	600,000
Catawissa, Williamsport & Elmira.	October 26, 1853	42	..	1,000,000
Chesnut Hill and Doylestown....	December 16, 1852	15	..	300,000
Chester Valley.....	October 10, 1833	13	..	1,500,000
Cobb's Gap.....	..	45
Columbia.....	December 31, 1846	38	..	800,000
Corning and Blossburg.....	December 15, 1840	40	..	600,000
Cumberland Valley.....	November 14, 1840	77	..	1,205,822
Dansville and Pottsville.....	October 16, 1832	44	..	800,000
Dansville and Shamokin.....	..	20
Erie and Ashtabula.....	November 30, 1852	40	..	1,200,000
Franklin.....	October 10, 1840	22	..	500,000
Germantown Branch.....	December 5, 1840	6	..	200,000
Harrisburg and Lancaster.....	December 23, 1835	25	..	1,702,523
Hazleton and Lehigh.....	November 6, 1840	10	..	80,000
Hempfield.....	..	82
Holidaysburgh Branch.....	..	6
Iron.....	October 31, 1852	25	..	500,000
Lackawanna and Western.....	October 13, 1851	58	..	1,000,000
Lebanon Valley.....	..	56
Lehigh and Susquehanna.....	December 1, 1840	20	..	1,250,000
Little Schuylkill.....	November 2, 1831	20	..	326,500
Little Schuylkill and Susquehanna	..	28	86	600,000
Lykens Valley.....	December 31, 1837	16	..	170,000
Mahoney and Wisconsin.....	November 30, 1850	17	..	180,000
Maunch Chunk and Branches....	June 17, 1827	25	..	300,000
Mill Creek.....	October 31, 1832	9	..	180,000
Mine Hill.....	December 26, 1836	12	..	896,117
Mount Carbon.....	November 24, 1830	7	..	70,000
Nesquehoning.....	December 19, 1840	5	..	50,000
North East.....	January 1, 1852	23	..	500,000
Norristown, Doylestown and New Hope.....	..	28
North Pennsylvania.....	..	88
Pennsylvania.....	November 13, 1852	228	..	7,978,000
Philadelphia City.....	November 21, 1840	6	..	300,000
Philadelphia and Columbia.....	September 20, 1832	82	..	4,204,969
Philadelphia, Germantown & Norristown.....	November 30, 1832	17	..	550,000
Philadelphia and Reading.....	December 31, 1840	92	..	16,649,515
Philadelphia and Sunbury.....	August 25, 1853	50	..	1,500,000
Philadelphia and Trenton.....	October 23, 1833	30	..	500,000
Philadelphia and West Chester....	December 26, 1850	21	..	600,000
Philadelphia, Wilmington and Baltimore.....	July 10, 1837	98	..	6,421,229
Pine Grove.....	November 10, 1832	4	..	40,000

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Pittsburg and Connellsville	150
Pittsburg and Erie	141
Pittsburg and Steubenville	35
Pottsville and Sunbury	40
Room Run	October 31, 1836	6	..	\$40,000
Schuylkill	December 31, 1832	13	..	200,000
Schuylkill Valley and Branches	November 30, 1832	25	..	300,000
Strasburg	35
Sunbury and Erie	35
Sunbury and Shamokin	20
Susquehanna	52
Trenton Branch	December 24, 1840	6	..	180,000
Trevorton and Mahanoy	November 23, 1850	15	..	160,000
Valley	20
West Chester	October 22, 1850	9	..	250,000
Williamsport and Elmira		25	35	700,000
York and Wrightsville	December 19, 1840	13	..	400,000

DELAWARE.

Delaware	43
Newcastle and Frenchtown	September 20, 1832	16	..	600,000

MARYLAND.

Annapolis and Elkridge	December 31, 1846	21	..	400,000
Baltimore and Ohio		491	30	22,254,338
Baltimore and Susquehanna	November 30, 1846	85	..	3,370,282

VIRGINIA.

Alexandria and Orange		70	105	1,400,000
Appomatox	December 31, 1850	9	..	200,000
Central		105	90	1,800,000
Chesterfield	July 6, 1832	12	..	150,000
Clover Hill	August 15, 1852	15	..	300,000
Covington and Ohio	228
Cumberland Gap	115
Fredricksburg and Gordonsville	38
Loudon and Hampshire	180
Manapas Gap		39	91	800,000
New River	77
Norfolk and Petersburg	80
Greenville and Roanoke	November 30, 1833	22	..	284,438
Petersburg and Weldon	October 31, 1833	60	..	946,721
Richmond and Petersburg	November 24, 1840	21	..	875,405
Richmond, Fredricksburg and Potomac	December 26, 1840	76	..	1,509,271
Richmond and York River	42
Southside		62	60	1,300,000
Richmond and Danville		73	74	1,500,000
Seaboard and Roanoke	January 1, 1853	77	..	1,454,171
Winchester and Potomac	November 24, 1836	32	..	400,416

NORTH CAROLINA.

Gaston and Raleigh	December 31, 1840	87	..	1,606,000
North Carolina	223
Wilmington and Weldon	November 30, 1850	162	..	2,500,000

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Charlotte and South Carolina.....	July 15, 1852	112	..	\$983,415
Cheraw and Darlington.....		10	35	200,000
Greenville and Columbia.....		103	61	2,000,000
King's Mountain.....	October 31, 1851	25	..	500,000
Laurens.....		8	22	160,000
North East.....		..	103
South Carolina.....	October 2, 1833	241	..	5,943,678
Spartanburg and Union.....		..	66
Wilmington and Manchester.....		76	86	1,500,000

GEORGIA.

Atlanta and La Grange.....	October 1, 1853	87	..	2,000,000
Athens Branch.....	December 31, 1840	39	..	800,000
Brunswick and Florida.....		..	130
Burke.....		15	38	300,000
Central.....	November 30, 1843	190	..	3,555,872
Eatonton.....		..	22
Georgia.....	October 13, 1843	192	..	3,100,000
Macon and Western.....	December 26, 1844	103	..	1,279,000
Milledgeville.....	November 24, 1851	18	..	350,000
Muscogee.....		25	46	500,000
Rome.....	October 23, 1850	18	..	200,000
Savannah and Albany.....		..	191
South Western.....	December 20, 1851	57	..	1,000,000
Western and Atlantic.....	November 19, 1850	140	..	3,000,000
Wilkes.....		..	18

FLORIDA.

St. Joseph's.....	December 31, 1847	28	..	130,000
Tallahassee and St. Marks.....	November 30, 1846	26	..	120,000

ALABAMA.

Alabama and Mississippi.....		..	90
Girard and Mobile.....		22	193	400,000
Memphis and Charleston.....		64	121	1,300,000
Montgomery and West Point.....	December 31, 1851	89	..	1,286,208
Tennessee and Selma.....		..	250
Tuscumbia and Decatur.....	November 30, 1832	46	..	650,000

MISSISSIPPI.

Mississippi, Natchez and Malcolm.....		..	30
Mobile and Ohio.....		88	406	2,000,000
Raymond.....	December 31, 1851	7	..	120,000
Vicksburg, Jackson and Brandon.....	November 30, 1846	60	..	950,000

LOUISIANA.

Carrollton.....	December 31, 1831	6	..	60,000
Clinton and Port Hudson.....	November 30, 1850	24	..	200,000
Lake Ponchartrain.....	April 16, 1851	6	..	60,000
Mexican Gulf.....	October 31, 1850	27	..	175,000
New Orleans, Opelousas and Great Western.....		..	119
St. Francisville and Woodville.....	April 15, 1831	28	..	463,000
West Feliciana.....	December 26, 1848	26	..	168,000

TEXAS.

Harrisburg and Brazos.....		..	72
----------------------------	--	----	----	-------

TENNESSEE.

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including construction.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Alabama and Tennessee.....		55	112	\$1,200,000
Atlanta and LaGrange.....	December 31, 1852	40	...	800,000
Chatanooga and Nashville.....	December 1, 1853	162	...	3,000,000
Cleveland and Chatanooga.....		...	30
East Tennessee and Georgia.....		81	29	1,800,000
East Tennessee and Virginia.....		50	154	1,000,000
Nashville and Mississippi.....		...	150
Memphis and LaGrange.....		...	50
Racburn Gap.....		...	170

KENTUCKY.

Covington and Lexington.....	December 31, 1853	96	...	2,000,000
Lexington and Frankfort.....	December 31, 1840	28	...	551,226
Lexington and Big Sandy.....	
Louisville and Chatanooga.....		...	180
Louisville and Danville.....		...	66
Louisville and Frankfort.....	November 30, 1851	65	...	1,358,764
Louisville and Newport.....		...	73
Maysville and Danville.....		...	110
Maysville and Lexington.....		44	23	1,000,000

OHIO.

Akron Branch.....		14	19	800,000
Belfontaine and Indiana.....	June 30, 1853	118	...	2,000,000
Central.....		59	82	1,200,000
Cincinnati, Hamilton, and Dayton.....	September 30, 1851	60	...	2,145,505
Cincinnati, Hillsboro' & Parkersburgh.....		37	163	800,000
Cincinnati and Marietta.....		75	65	1,500,000
Cincinnati and Xenia.....		...	50
Cincinnati, Zanesville, & Cleveland.....		...	300
Cleveland, Coshocton, & Zanesville.....		...	130
Cleveland and Erie.....	November 23, 1852	95	...	2,000,000
Cleveland and Mahoning.....		...	103
Cleveland, Norwalk, and Toledo.....	January 25, 1853	88	...	1,517,714
Cleveland and Pittsburg.....	September 30, 1853	99	...	2,000,000
Columbus and Cleveland.....	October 25, 1853	135	...	3,000,000
Columbus and Lake Erie.....	September 25, 1853	61	...	1,200,000
Columbus, Piqua, and Indiana.....	November 30, 1853	102	...	2,000,000
Columbus and Springfield.....	October 31, 1852	65	...	1,300,000
Columbus and Newark.....	September 30, 1852	36	...	720,000
Columbus and Xenia.....	February 28, 1850	55	...	1,194,074
Dayton and Miami.....	November 30, 1852	46	...	1,000,000
Dayton and Michigan.....		5	135	100,000
Dayton and Richmond.....	December 31, 1852	52	...	1,000,000
Dayton and Springfield.....	December 26, 1851	24	...	500,000
Dayton and Western.....	October 31, 1853	20	...	400,000
Dayton and Xenia.....		15	15	300,900
Eaton and Piqua.....		...	35
Findlay.....	November 24, 1851	16	...	200,000
Greenfield and Miami.....	October 23, 1852	37	...	740,000
Hamilton, Eaton, and Richmond.....	May 31, 1853	115	...	713,103
Ironton.....	November 16, 1852	20	...	400,000
Junction.....		12	54	200,000
Little Miami.....	October 15, 1847	83	...	1,508,402
Mad River and Lake Erie.....	December 10, 1847	156	...	1,754,260
Mansfield and Newark.....	November 11, 1851	60	...	1,200,000
Mansfield and Sandusky.....	December 31, 1852	56	...	1,600,000
Newark and Zanesville.....		...	30
Ohio and Indiana.....	December 31, 1853	132	...	2,700,000

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Ohio and Pennsylvania.....	April 9, 1853	187	...	\$3,000,000
Pittsburg and Steubenville	42
Scioto and Hocking Valley	20	105	400,000
Springfield, Delaware, and Mount Vernon	60	55	1,200,000
Springfield and Mansfield.....	72
Springfield and Xenia	November 19, 1852	20	...	400,000
Steubenville and Indiana	December 31, 1853	112	...	2,500,000
Troy and Michigan	20	50	400,000
Western	73
MICHIGAN.				
Central	December 31, 1851	228	...	8,614,197
Detroit and Pontiac	November 30, 1840	25	...	300,000
Erie and Kalamazoo	December 31, 1840	33	...	350,000
Southern, (including Northern Indiana).....	September 30, 1851	315	...	4,578,082
INDIANA.				
Cincinnati, Logansport, & Chicago.....	...	174	105	3,500,000
Central	September 30, 1853	72	...	1,500,000
Evansville and Terre Haute	27	84	540,000
Fort Wayne and Chicago	159
Fort Wayne and Muncie	60
Indianapolis and Belfontaine	July 31, 1853	83	...	1,800,000
Indianapolis and Lafayette	November 30, 1852	61	...	1,000,000
Indianapolis and Laurenceburg.....	...	63	28	1,200,000
Indianapolis and Peru	December 31, 1853	73	...	1,500,000
Indianapolis and Terre Haute	February 16, 1852	72	...	1,500,000
Jeffersonville and Columbus.....	October 9, 1852	66	...	1,300,000
Junction	38
Martinsville and Franklin.....	December 24, 1852	25	...	500,000
New Albany and Salem.....	...	260	25	5,000,000
Ohio and Mississippi.....	...	87	249	1,800,000
Shelbyville and Edinburgh.....	October 24, 1850	16	...	320,000
Shelbyville and Knightstown.....	December 20, 1851	27	...	540,000
Shelbyville and Rushville.....	November 19, 1851	20	...	400,000
ILLINOIS.				
Alton and Chicago	30	270	600,000
Alton and Jacksonville	65
Alton and New Albany	175
Alton and Springfield	September 9, 1852	78	...	1,600,000
Alton and Terre Haute	170
Aurora Branch	36	19	720,000
Belleville and Illinoistown.....	14
Central	233	466	5,000,000
Chicago and Aurora.....	October 15, 1853	160	...	3,000,000
Chicago and Mississippi.....	October 20, 1853	128	...	2,500,000
Chicago and Galena Union.....	August 31, 1853	175	...	3,500,000
Chicago and St. Charles	160
Illinois and Wisconsin	24	31	500,000
Lake Shore	95
Northern Cross—Eastern Extension	30
Northern Cross—Western Extension	15	21	300,000
O'Fallon and Coal Bluff.....	December 31, 1840	7	...	140,000
Peoria, Knoxville, and Burlington	110
Peoria and Ocquaka	60	30	1,200,000
Peoria and Warsaw.....	120
Rock Island and Chicago	January 1, 1854	192	...	4,000,000

Names of Railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in length, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
St. Charles Branch.....	November 26, 1850	8	...	\$160,000
Sangamon and Morgan.....		56	39	1,000,000
Springfield and Bloomington.....	October 31, 1853	60	...	1,200,000
Warsaw, Rock Island, and Byron.....		...	130

MISSOURI.

Hannibal and St. Joseph.....	...	210
Iron Mountain.....	...	75
North Missouri.....	...	228
Pacific (Kansas).....	50	135	1,000,000
Pacific (South West).....	...	280
St. Louis and St. Charles	35

IOWA.

Burlington and Missouri.....	...	300
Dubuque and Keokuck.....	...	180

WISCONSIN.

Milwaukee and Mississippi.....	92	100	2,000,000
Milwaukee and Watertown.....	...	50
Rock River Valley Union.....	January 1, 1854	86	1,800,000
Kenosha and Beloit.....	...	50

RECAPITULATION.

States.	No. of railways.	No. of miles in operation.	No. of miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Maine.....	11	417	90	\$12,662,645
New Hampshire.....	15	512	24	16,185,254
Vermont.....	8	422	59	14,116,195
Massachusetts.....	43	1,283	48	55,602,687
Rhode Island.....	1	50	...	2,614,484
Connecticut.....	15	669	83	20,857,357
New York.....	32	2,345	564	94,523,785
New Jersey.....	11	408	29	11,536,505
Pennsylvania.....	64	1,464	987	58,494,675
Delaware.....	2	16	43	600,000
Maryland.....	3	597	30	26,024,620
Virginia.....	21	673	1,180	12,720,421
North Carolina.....	3	249	223	4,106,000
South Carolina.....	9	576	374	11,287,093
Georgia.....	15	834	445	16,084,872
Florida.....	2	54	...	250,000
Alabama.....	6	221	659	3,636,208
Mississippi.....	4	155	436	3,070,000
Louisiana.....	7	117	119	1,131,000
Texas.....	1	...	72
Tennessee.....	9	388	695	7,800,000
Kentucky.....	9	233	452	4,909,990
Ohio.....	46	2,367	1,578	44,927,058
Michigan.....	4	601	13,842,279
Indiana.....	18	1,127	748	22,400,000
Illinois.....	25	1,262	1,945	25,420,000
Missouri.....	6	50	963	1,000,000
Iowa.....	2	...	480
Wisconsin.....	4	178	200	3,800,000
Total.....	396	17,317	12,526	\$489,603,128

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

THE ENGLISH CENSUS.

It appears from the English Census of 1851 that the total number of persons forming the people of Great Britain on the night the Census was taken—the 31st of March, 1851—was 21,129,967. After stating this chief fact, the census takers say, with great truth:—

It is difficult to form any just conception of these large numbers, for men are rarely seen in large masses, and when seen their numbers are seldom known. It is only by collecting, as in other cases of measuring, the units into masses, these masses into other masses, and thus ascending progressively to a unit comprehending all others, that the mind attains any adequate notion of such a multitude as a million of men. Thus, from a file of ten persons, which the eye takes in at one view, the mind readily conceives ten such groups, or a hundred, and again ascending to ten hundred or a thousand; to ten thousand or a myriad; to ten myriads or a hundred thousand; and to ten hundred thousand or a million—arrives at the conception of the twenty-one millions of people which Great Britain contained within its shores on the night of March 3, 1851. Another way of arriving at this conception is, by considering the numbers in relation to space; as 4,840 persons might stand without crowding on the 4,840 square yards in an acre, 3,097,600 persons would cover a square mile, (equal to 640 acres;) and the twenty-one millions of people in Great Britain, allowing a square yard to each person, would therefore cover seven square miles.

Doubting whether this statement conveys a complete idea of the number of people in Great Britain, the Report attempts another mode of illustration:—

The building of the Great Exhibition in London inclosed 18 acres, and 50,000 or 60,000 persons often entered it daily; on the 9th of October 93,224 persons filled its floor and galleries, and could almost be surveyed by the eye at one time. Of 100,000 persons a general notion can be formed by all those who witnessed this spectacle at the Crystal Palace; it is a greater number than ever were, at one time, in a building covering eighteen acres, but somewhat less than the greatest number (109,915) that ever entered in one day, October 7th. The population, then, of Great Britain, including men, women, and children, exceeds 211 hundred thousands; and at the rate of a hundred thousand a day, could have passed through the building in 211 days; the English—as they are 169 thousand—in 169 days; the Welsh, 10 hundred thousand, in 10 days; the Scotch, 29 hundred thousand, in 29 days; the 143,126 islanders in the British Seas, in less than a day and a half; the 162,490 soldiers and seamen absent from the country when the census was taken, in less than two days. The population of Great Britain in 1801 amounted in round numbers to 109 hundred thousands; and 102 of the 211 hundred thousands in 1851, or as many as could pass through such a place in 102 days, would represent the increase of the people of Great Britain in half a century.

COLORED POPULATION NORTH AND SOUTH.

The Richmond *Examiner* publishes an interesting statistical article, contrasting the physical condition of the free blacks of the North and the slaves of the South. The *Examiner* says:—

In Maine there are 1,355 free blacks, of whom 94 are insane—1 to 14! In Louisiana there were 45 insane out of 193,194 slaves—1 in every 4,310. In Massachusetts the ratio of insanity among the free negroes was 1 to every 43. In Virginia, 1 to 1,286. In Missouri, 1 to 979. In Illinois, 1 to 47. The census of 1850 showed that there was 1 blind person to every 2,445 whites, 1 blind to every 2,645 slaves, whilst among the free colored persons of the North there is 1 blind to every 870. There is 1 idiot to every 1,040 slaves, and 1 idiot to every 436 free blacks at the North! The total of afflicted, of blind, deaf, dumb, idiotic, and insane, among slaves at the South, is 1 to every 1,057, while these maladies are endured among the free blacks of the North in the ratio of 1 to every 311.

POPULATION OF BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

The population and extent of the British North American Colonies, will be seen by the following statement, prepared in the office of the chief superintendent of education, at Toronto:—

Year.	Provinces.	Population.	Square Miles.
1852	Upper Canada.....	953,239	147,832
1852	Lower Canada.....	890,261	201,989
1851	New Brunswick.....	193,800	27,700
1851	Nova Scotia.....	276,117	18,746
1848	Prince Edward's Island	62,678	2,134
1851	Newfoundland.....	101,600	57,000
1851	Hudson's Bay Territory.....	180,000	2,500,000
1851	Labrador	5,000	170,000
Total.....		2,662,695	3,125,401

POPULATION OF CHIEF CITIES.

	1844.	1846.	1852.
Toronto, U. C.	18,420	21,000	30,775
Hamilton.....	5,669	6,832	14,112
Kingston	6,840	9,500	11,585
Quebec, L. C.....	34,500	37,000	42,052
Montreal.....	44,093	50,000	57,715
Frederickton, N. B.....	3,700	4,000	4,458
St. Johns.....	19,500	20,000	22,745
Halifax, N. S.....	22,000	23,500	26,000
Charlottetown, P. E. L.....	3,904	4,500	4,717
St. Johns, N. F.....	12,000	19,000	21,000

SCHOOL POPULATION OF CINCINNATI.

The School Census of Cincinnati, Ohio, has just been taken by authority, as a basis for distribution of the State education fund. The Cincinnati *Atlas*, from which we derive the returns, says:—"It is a remarkable fact—if it be really a fact—that with the increase of the population for two years, the number of children is two thousand less in 1853 than in 1851. It will be noted also as remarkable, that in the eighth district there is a decrease in numbers of one thousand and ninety-six! There certainly must have been some mistake in the collecting together this census."

SCHOOL CENSUS—YOUTH BETWEEN FOUR AND TWENTY-ONE YEARS OF AGE.

	WHITES					COLOR'D.
	1851.	1852.	1853.	Increase.	Decrease.	1853.
1st District	2,772	3,421	3,274	147	35
2d "	2,525	2,893	3,313	220	372
3d "	1,709	1,154	1,270	116
4th "	3,225	1,659	1,778	119	37
5th "	2,375	2,632	2,408	224	135
6th "	2,406	2,458	2,568	110	62
7th "	3,029	2,984	3,343	359	153
8th "	3,369	3,526	2,430	1,096	26
9th "	3,686	2,649	2,735	86	104
10th "	3,889	2,414	2,835	421	16
11th "	3,470	3,560	4,162	602	13
12th "	2,385	2,284	2,617	333	35
13th "	3,066	4,273	4,104	168	38
14th "	2,210	1,767	1,463	304	10
15th "	133	105	105
	40,259	37,778	38,205	2,366	1,939	1,053

The returns for the fifteenth district have not been received, it is therefore estimated at the same as last year.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

SILVER AT THE COPPER MINES OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

The Hon. TRUMAN SMITH, United States Senator from Connecticut, has written a letter announcing an important discovery in respect to our mineral interest on Lake Superior, which he made by the agency of an accomplished metallurgist recently from Europe. Mr. Smith has spent most of the summer on the Lake, actively employed in attending to the interests of several companies in which he is concerned. It has not been known, or even suspected until recently, that there is in the matrix of some of the mines, if not all, an ore of silver. Mr. Smith gives a statement of four parcels which were reduced with the results (we quote from his letter) as follow:—

No. 1. From Northwest Mine, yield after the rate of 56 oz. of silver to 100 lbs. of ore—equal to 1,120 oz. per ton; value, \$1,355 21.

No. 2. Isle Royale Mine, yield after the rate of 26 oz. to the 100 lbs.—equal to 520 oz. per ton; value, \$627 20.

No. 3. From the same mine, yield after the rate of 40 oz. to the 100 lbs.—equal to 800 oz. per ton; value, \$968.

No. 4. Cliff Mine, yield after the rate of 12 oz. to the 100 lbs.—equal to 240 oz. per ton; value, \$290 40.

I am informed by Gen. Villomil, the very able Minister from Ecuador, it is considered in South America that an ore which will yield from 4 to 6 ounces will pay all expenses, including, of course, the mining expenses. It should be borne in mind that I brought forward these ores, adhering as they did to the copper, without the slightest suspicion that they were argentiferous, and therefore it cannot be said that they were selected specimens. But I must believe that these results will prove greatly above any average that can be obtained by practical operations. That the ores are likely to add much to the value of our mines, I strongly believe. The mining expenses are all incurred in taking out the copper. Hence, whatever may be obtained in the form of silver, will be an addition to our resources.

The questions may be asked—What is the amount of these ores? Are they likely to become a matter of national importance?

I am not prepared to answer these inquiries. My belief is, the quantity will prove to be very considerable, and perhaps large in some of the mines, and large in the aggregate. I shall take measures to have this subject investigated, so far as it can be done at this late season of the year, and I may make a further communication thereon.

I feel it to be my duty to caution the public against wild speculations based on these revelations. I am engaged in the business of mining, which I hold to be useful, legitimate, and proper; but I abhor stock-jobbing—it has been the greatest curse of Lake Superior. Let us keep cool, ascertain the facts, and act accordingly. I make this statement because my experiments are on the streets, and I deem it best to have the case in an authentic form.

RE-OPENING OF A SILVER MINE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

The re opening of an ancient silver mine in Pequea Valley, Lancaster county, has caused some excitement. The mine is said to have belonged to English capitalists, who, on the breaking out of the revolutionary war, buried their tools and closed up the shafts and tunnels. Since then the existence of the mine has been forgotten, or only remembered as a traditional fable, until recently, when some traces were found of it, and operations were commenced under the superintendence of Mr. E. Bowen. He has succeeded in clearing out one tunnel or adit level, 100 yards long, 7 feet high, and 5 feet wide; a shaft 50 feet deep, and the beginning of another adit level. Assays that have been made of the ore (argentiferous galena) show that it contains over \$500 worth of silver to the ton, and yields about 80 per cent of lead. A letter from Mr. Bowen, dated October 26, 1853, states his conviction that the mine was

abandoned hurriedly, not from its proving unprofitable, but solely on account of the war; that the tools will be found buried in the mine, and that a large quantity of ore, previously mined and cleaned, is deposited also with them. He adds, that one month's experience proves that the mine, as now exposed, will pay the interest of \$1,300,000 on a working capital of \$100,000, and with a capacity equal to 100 men. He publishes, also, a letter from Hon. James Cooper, who states that his father, who was born in 1764, in the Pequea settlement, had spoken of hearing from his father, of the existence of these mines, and of their having been abandoned and filled up by the English operators, on account of the war. There seems to be no doubt either of the former history or the present value of the mines, and their re-discovery will make a great addition to the already vast mineral wealth of Lancaster county.

QUICKSILVER IN CALIFORNIA.

(TRANSLATED FROM THE COURIER DES ETATS UNIS.)

The annual production of mercury at the mines of Almaden, (Spain,) Idria, (Frioul,) Hungary, Transylvania, Peru, etc., is valued at from thirty to forty thousand quintals, (cwt.,) China and Japan also produce an equal quantity of mercury, but, I believe, do not export the article. Notwithstanding this large production the supply is by no means equal to the demand, and many gold and silver mines have ceased to be worked on account of the scarcity and high price of that metal. The mystery which yet envelops the operations at the mines of New Almaden, has prevented me from obtaining accurate returns, but we can to some extent supply that want from our own observations, and enable your readers to appreciate the value of these mines in California. The richest minerals of Europe are those of Almaden and Idria; the first contain 10 per cent of metal, the latter 8 per cent. The other minerals are less rich. I have analyzed several samples of cinnabar, taken from different spots in New Almaden, and they have yielded from 29 to 72 per cent. The general average was about 50 per cent; that is to say, the cinnabar is from 10 to 11 times richer than that of Europe.

I have analyzed the refuse which came from the furnaces at New Almaden, and found 8 and 10 per cent of mercury. Thus have they thrown aside a mineral as rich as that of Idria and Almaden. The loss of 8 to 10 per cent, combined with a equal loss by evaporation on account of defective apparatus, is a most deplorable waste of the riches of the earth. There are at New Almaden ten furnaces for roasting, more or less imperfect in construction, and which, nevertheless, furnish, if in constant operation, from thirty to thirty-five thousand pounds of mercury weekly. To obtain that amount of metal one hundred thousand pounds of cinnabar are consumed, and from eighteen to twenty thousand pounds of mercury lost from bad management. The following calculation will serve to show at what weekly expense these mines could be worked, under a proper system of management:—

Fuel.....	\$160
Laborers' wages.....	1,500
Wear and tear of machinery.....	200
Expense of package, etc.....	500
Interest on capital.....	1,500
Total.....	\$3,800

The above outlay would produce 50,000 lbs. of mercury. This would be working with a very limited capital, and it would be easy to double the product by increasing the capital from eighty to one hundred thousand dollars. I need not say that these calculations are not founded upon any results obtained at New Almaden; I neither know the receipts nor expenses of working those mines. I only wish to render apparent to all the importance to which that branch of metallurgic industry can be raised. But to return to New Almaden, the only important work which exists there is a "rift," or inclined plain, which conveys the mineral to the works. Do they find collections of pure mercury in those mines? We do not know, but think it ought to exist in considerable quantities, and that it would be discovered by well directed researches. The deposits of cinnabar appear very extensive in the neighborhood of the mines now worked, and we may safely predict that hereafter new and extensive works of a similar character will be established there.

D. D'HEINY.

STATISTICS OF THE SHOE MANUFACTURE.

This has become a great business—and though everybody is aware of this, very few are aware of the actual extent to which it is carried on.

In the State of Massachusetts it is the second in importance, agriculture being the first. It has not only a greater number of persons engaged in it than any other handicraft, but it probably pays better. The *Andover Advertiser* has an article giving the statistics of this business, from which it appears that the aggregate value of boots and shoes manufactured in the State is estimated at \$37,000,000, which equals the manufacture in all the other States combined, and exceeds that of any other manufacture in this commonwealth, the item of cotton goods of all kinds amounting to but \$12,103,449. Of the above value, \$12,000,000 worth are annually shipped to New York, where there are 250 boot and shoe warehouses, many of which sell from \$100,000 to \$1,000,000 a year, and three of them even exceed the highest sum named. The remainder, that are not used at home, are sent to the South and West, to California, the West Indies, South America, Australia, the Sandwich Islands, to England, and the continent of Europe.

The sale of "findings," which does not include leather, employs thirty-eight firms in New York, and amounts to \$600,000 a year. Most of the pegs used in this immense business are made in New Hampshire, and one firm, it is said, manufactures fifty bushels daily. The pegs are cut by machinery. A machine has been invented recently to drive them in an incredibly short space of time, and another machine for sewing and stitching has come in use.

Lynn is engaged in this business more extensively than any other town. With a population of 14,257, the number of manufactures is 144, and of operatives, 3,787 males, and 6,422 females; and the number of pairs made annually, 4,633,900; from 1840 to 1850 there were 707 dwelling houses built, and the number of rateable polls doubled. Danvers, population, 8,109; manufacturers, 35; operatives, 1,184 males, 693 females; pairs made, 1,123,000; dwelling houses increased from 479 to 1,020 from 1840 to 1850, and the number of rateable polls in a similar proportion. Stoneham, population, 2,885; manufacturers, 24; operatives, 415 males, 376 females; 850,000 pairs of children's shoes made annually. There is more than one male shoemaker to each family. In Grafton, one manufacturer uses 100 bushels of shoe pegs per year.

The whole number of persons engaged in the business within the State, by the census of 1850, is 39,944.

MINERAL WEALTH OF EGYPT.

WILLIAM C. BRYANT, in one of his letters published in the *Evening Post*, says:—

When I was in Upper Egypt, I fell in with an Italian who was employed to obtain sulphur from a mine among these mountains. They are incredibly rich, said he, in beds of ore of various metals and other mineral productions; but these cannot be worked for want of fuel. Egypt has no mines of coal—all that is used in her steamers and her manufactures is brought from England. She has springs of mineral oil, the indication of beds of coal, and wherever they are to be found, the government has made excavations to a great depth and at a great cost, but without success. An Arab, in wandering among the mountains at the Red Sea, not long since, found a little pool of quicksilver where it had flowed from the rocks. He attempted to scoop it up with his hands, but it slid through his fingers. He then drew it up in his mouth, filled with it the leathern bottle in which he carried water, and brought it home. He was taken ill immediately afterward and died, probably from the effect of the quicksilver he had swallowed, so that the spot where he found it is still unknown, though diligent search has been made for it.

CAPITAL INVESTED IN MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The entire capital invested in the various manufactures in the United States, on the 1st of June, 1850, not to include any establishments producing less than the annual value of \$500—

Amounted, in round numbers, to	\$530,000,000
Value of raw material	550,000,000
Amount paid for labor	240,000,000
Value of manufactured articles	1,020,000,000
Number of persons employed	1,050,000

MILK FOR MANUFACTURERS.

Milk now possesses other offices besides the production of butter and cheese, and the flavoring of tea. It has made its way into the textile factories, and has become a valuable adjunct in the hands of the calico printer and the woolen manufacturer. In the class of pigment printing work, which, indeed, is a species of painting, the colors are laid on the face of the goods in an insoluble condition, so as to present a full, brilliant face. As a vehicle for effecting this process of decoration, the insoluble albumen obtained from eggs was always used until Mr. Pattison, of Glasgow, found a more economical substitute in milk. For this purpose buttermilk is now bought up in large quantities from the farmers, and the required insoluble matter is obtained from it at a price far below that of the egg albumen. This matter the patentee has called "Iacbrine." A second application of the same article—milk—has just been developed, by causes arising out of the recent high price of olive oil. The woolen manufacturers are now using the high-priced article mixed with milk. This mixture is said to answer much better than oil alone, the animal fat contained in the globules of the milk apparently furnishing an element of more powerful effect upon the woolen fibers than the pure vegetable oil alone.—*London Med. Jour.*

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

LAY OF THE ANXIOUS DEBTOR,

(ADDRESSED TO HIS CONFIDING BUTCHER.)

AIR—"Will you love me then as now?"

You have told me that you trust me,
And you prove the words you speak,
As you send the meat in daily,
And the book but once a week!
May I hope your kindly feeling
Nothing ever will estrange,
And this pleasant mode of dealing
Circumstances ne'er will change?
When you send a twelvemonth's bill in,
And to pay I don't know how,
When you hear I've not a shilling,
Will you trust me then as now?

Though a month may pass unclouded,
And you send what's ordered home,
Yet, as week on week advances,
Thoughts across your mind must come.
You will lose your old politeness,
And reluctant fill your tray,
Cheerful looks will lose their lightness
When you find I never pay.
When my debts have pressed upon me,
And my tradesmen make a row,
Will the change find you unchanging—
Will you trust me then as now?—*Punch.*

FRAUDS IN WOOLEN CLOTH.

A correspondent of the *Genesee Farmer* makes a curious development in relation to woolen cloths manufactured abroad for the American market. He says:—

It is not generally known that hundreds, and I might say thousands, of bales of the cast off rags of paupers have been imported and worked up in woolen cloth to sell to the American people. These rags, as you told us not long since, were formerly used as manure. Imported rags, all wool, bring seven cents per pound in the New York market; rags half cotton and half wool, three to four cents per pound. Now, who among your readers, if they knew it, would wear a garment made in part of wool of the worst description, and part of the lousy rags of beggars? Who would, if they knew it, wear woolen clothes fit only for manure? All the low-priced men's wear is of this description of cloth, and may be easily detected by putting one's hand upon it—it feels as rough as a horse-card. There is no occasion for manufacturers to work up old rags in this country, where wool is so plenty; but they will continue to make it as long as they can humbug, sell, and fleece the people out of their money. This counterfeit cloth is made of imported rags, and imported wool that cost but little more than the rags. The frauds the manufacturers commit upon the unsuspecting laboring men throws the sheep speculation entirely in the shade.

I reluctantly acknowledge the general laxity of trading morals, and the little value set upon virtuous actions; and it is astonishing how few persons among the laboring classes, deeply interested in agricultural prosperity, take the trouble to read, think, and act upon broad and sound principles.

THE MAN RETIRED FROM BUSINESS.

Almost every man sets out in life with the determination, when a certain sum has been accumulated, to retire from the cares of business and enjoy the balance of his days "*otium cum dignitate*." Visions of sunny farms and rural retreats are ever before him; but, unfortunately, few men have the courage, when the required sum has been obtained, to be contented and retire. In the course of years new tastes have been acquired, and new wants added to the humble catalogue with which he commenced life. The rural retreat has become a suburban residence, with coach, horses, stables, &c., and a few thousands more have become necessary. So he goes toiling on, his ambition widening and extending as he pushes and urges his way on to competence and fortune. During all this time he forgets he is getting older—that his capacity for enjoyment is getting more contracted every day—that his tastes and habits are becoming confirmed in business life, so that when he does muster up the firmness to yield his place in the business world to younger men, he is about as unhappy a mortal as one could meet on a summer's day.

It is related of a tallow-chandler of London, who had accumulated a fortune and retired to his villa, that time hung so heavily on his hands that he used to have a melting day once a week, and make his own candles for amusement. He had probably neglected through his life to lay in a store of knowledge, to cultivate a taste for reading, or otherwise prepare his mind as well as his pocket for the purposes of a life of leisure. His great object had been to make enough to retire on, without caring to provide something to retire with.

That man alone can hope to enjoy a pleasant leisure in the evening of his days who has intellectual means of enjoyment always at command. He must, or should, be satisfied with a comfortable independence and leave the cares of business in the meridian of life, if he can, before he become so habituated to a certain routine, to deviate from which, or leave, instead of comfort or happiness, would only make him miserable and discontented.

FRAUDS IN TRADE.

So common have frauds in trade, by adulteration of cheap with dearer substances, become, that one scarcely feels safe now-a-days in trusting to anything save his own close examination, and even chemical test of articles of family consumption. It was not so when old-fashioned honesty was not accounted stupidity—when a man was content to earn a respectable living for himself and family, and did not set up his coach contemporaneously with his grocery-shop—when his sons chopped wood and wore homespun, and his daughters cooked his breakfast before they went to the district school—when swindling was accounted crime, and cheating retained its dictionary definition.

A man must grow rich *now*, with a rush. His sons, as soon as they shed their petticoats, must sport gold watches and diamond rings, and his daughters leave off long pantalettes for long Cashmere shawls and rosewood pianos. He can't find God in the old wooden church or the little village school-house; and we doubt if God can find *him* in the dim light of richly-stained glass, and velvet curtains, hid beneath the mass of pride, and vanity, and avarice, that is inclosed within the frescoed walls of our modern theaters—churches, we meant to have said. It takes a "power of money" for a poor man to ape, with a moderate degree of success, a millionaire, and honest trade is too slow a process of becoming a nabob.

LAW TO PREVENT BAD DEBTS.

An old merchant of New York city says he is quite convinced that if a simple law, like the following, were passed, it would prevent 75 per cent of the bad debts now made, besides promoting eminently honor, integrity, and upright mercantile character:—

"Be it enacted, &c., That all laws for the collection of any debt, contracted after the passage of this law, be abolished, except where property is transferred for its security; the property so transferred to be the only legal security of such debt."

We entertain much the same opinion.

A COMMERCIAL CONSCIENCE.

An old Dutchman, named Shumm, who lived in one of the wretched hovels that stand in the rear of Sheriff-street, and whose apparent poverty and manifest sufferings from a dreadful case of hernia had long excited the sympathy of his humane neighbors, died of asthma and a complication of other diseases. He was well known to be of a very obstinate and eccentric disposition; and, although he had been confined to his bed some weeks, he not only rejected all medical aid, but persisted to the last in his singular habit of sleeping in the whole of his wardrobe, which consisted chiefly in a pair of breeches, that at some remote era had been constructed of blue velvet, and a sailor's jacket, and a frieze overcoat, all of which exhibited accumulated proofs of the old man's attachment. He sent for Mr. Van Duerson, a respectable countryman of his residing in the neighborhood, who had given him charitable relief, and privately requested him to make his will! To this gentleman's great surprise, he bequeathed various sums of money, amounting altogether to \$3,700, to children and grand-children residing at Newark and Albany, and confidentially informed him where his property was deposited. He then narrated to Mr. Van Duerson the following remarkable facts in his history:—

He stated that about twenty-five years ago he was a porter to a mercantile house in Hamburg, and having been long in its employ, was frequently entrusted with considerable sums of money for conveyance to other establishments. In an hour of evil influence he was induced to violate his trust, and abscond to this country with a large sum. Having arrived, he invested the greater part of it in the purchase of two houses, which adjoined each other, and which, before he had effected an insurance on them, were burnt to the ground. Considering this judgment of heaven upon his dishonesty, he determined to devote the remainder of his life to a severe course of industry and parsimony, with the single object in view of making full restitution to the persons whom he had injured, or to their descendants.

He adopted another name, and with the means he had left, commenced business in this city as a tobacconist; and although his trade was a retail one, and he had again suffered a heavy loss from fire, he had succeeded, five years since, in acquiring sufficient property to accomplish his just and elevated purpose. He then, accordingly, sold his stock in trade, and was preparing to transmit the necessary amount to Hamburg, where the mercantile firm he had defrauded still continues, when he ascertained that it had a branch establishment, or agency counting house, at Philadelphia. Thither he went, and paid the sum of \$14,000, being equivalent to the original sum he had embezzled, with a certain rate of interest. The latter, however, was generously returned to him by a son of one of the partners, and this, together with some surplus money, he has bequeathed as above stated. For the last five years he has lived in utter obscurity, and in severe accordance with his long-formed habits of parsimony. His executor, Mr. Van Duerson, found the above-named sum of \$3,700, principally in doubloons, curiously concealed in a certain private department of the tenacious breeches before specified; and it was ascertained that the old man's dreadful case of hernia was a case of something far less objectionable. The remainder of his money was found under the patches of his jacket, with the exception of a small sum in shillings and sixpences discovered in an old snuff-jar, which seems to have been the depository of his current funds.

THE PARIS EXHIBITION OF 1855.

A letter from Paris states that satisfactory reports have been received to the invitation, which the French government transmitted to every country of Christendom, to supply domestic products for the Universal Exhibition at Paris in 1855. In order to astonish the world the more, a committee of twelve literati of the capital have devised an article as a tribute and illustration of French literature; it is a volume of the dimensions of a large journal—a grand folio of a thousand pages, to which a hundred French writers of celebrity will be summoned to contribute. Each will treat some particular and prime division of the Exhibition—the most useful, curious, or brilliant; in verse or in prose. Thus the whole will be emblazoned, described, commemorated, and, it may be hoped, immortalized, by the most gifted and practised pens. The volume is to show, besides, the utmost excellence to which typography, photography, engraving, drawing, the imaginative and the exquisite in the fine arts, have attained, so far, in the present century. The cost will be enormous; how it is

to be defrayed, has not been determined; but on this head, the sanguine projectors and the correspondents of the press, do not seem to be in the least uneasy. A lively interest is already excited throughout France, in the success of the Exhibition; if Christendom should remain at peace, and the country internally tranquil, it will be the very climax in every respect.

GREAT RESULTS FROM A SMALL BEGINNING.

The New York *Artisan* relates the following anecdote, which we republish for the encouragement of persons of small resources, except in their willing hands and honest hearts:—

Mrs. B. (the respected widow of Mr. B., some years since an extensive and opulent merchant in this city,) becoming reduced in circumstances, with four children to support, took a small thread and needle store in Washington-street, in a house fitted up by a sister of a Mr. A., an eminent baker of thirty years' standing in New York. Having purchased 7 lbs. of flour wherewith to make a batch of bread for her children, she innocently enough, on its withdrawal from the oven, placed it on the counter to cool. Some parties called in accidentally to make some trifling purchase, and, remarking the nice fresh-looking bread, exclaimed—

"Oh, Mrs. B., what beautiful-looking bread! Will you sell me a loaf?" She replied—"It was intended for my children, but to please a customer, I will sell it."

The proceeds and profits on that one sale enabled her to purchase 14 lbs. more, which was speedily converted into domestic bread, and was rapidly sold. Progressing thus, and finding such a demand for this description of bread, she was soon enabled to purchase a barrel of flour, and finally, after some years of extraordinary success in the business, she purchased 500 acres of land in Michigan, 300 of which, five years ago, were sown with wheat and in a high state of cultivation. On these 300 acres she raised, in one year, \$6,000 worth of wheat.

SHIPNOLOGY.

Nothing so strikingly indicates the change which has taken place in our mercantile marine as the ingenuity displayed in the invention of names for ships. Formerly our merchants were satisfied with a modest nomenclature—calling their vessels after their wives or their friends, by the name of some ancient worthy or modern hero, or by some name or adjective expressive of strength or safety. Now all this is changed, and *speed* seems to be the only desideratum. We have the *Courser*, the *Bucephalus*, the *Eclipse*, the *Flying Dutchman*, and the *Flying Childers*; the *Stag Hound*, the *Wild Pigeon*, the *Swallow*, and the *Bald Eagle*; the *Sea Foam* and the *Ocean Spray*; the *West Wind* and the *Whirlwind*; the *Simoon* and the *Sirocco*; and lastly, the *Thunder Cloud*, the *Phantom*, the *Tornado*, and the *Wings of the Morning*. What next?

IT'S WHAT YOU SPEND.

"It's what thee'll spend, my son," said a sage old quaker, "not what thee'll make which will decide whether thee's to be rich or not." The advice was trite, for it was Franklin's in another shape: "Take care of the pennies, and the pounds will take care of themselves." But it cannot be too often repeated. Men are continually indulging in small expenses, saying to themselves that it is only a trifle, yet forgetting that the aggregate is serious—that even the sea-shore is made up of petty grains of sand. Ten cents a day even is thirty-six dollars and a half a year, and that is the interest of a capital of six hundred dollars. The man who saves ten cents a day only, is so much richer than him who does not, as if he owned a life estate in a house worth six hundred dollars.

PROVERBS FOR BUSINESS MEN.

Honesty is the best policy. Short reckonings make long friends. A man may buy gold too dear. A needy man's budget is full of schemes. A rolling stone gathers no moss. Credit lost is like a broken looking-glass. Debt is the worst kind of poverty. Pay as you go, and keep from small scores. Sudden trust brings sudden repentance.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Law of Contracts.* By THEOPHILUS PARSONS, LL. D., Dane Professor of Law in Harvard University at Cambridge. Vol. I, pp. 776. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Mr. Parsons' long experience in commercial law, both as a practitioner of the highest standing, and recently as Professor in the Cambridge Law School, has enabled him to discuss the subject of his work in the fullest and most satisfactory manner. Bailments, Partnership, Bills, and Notes, Agency, and all other matters in which a contract is an essential part, are treated of with a completeness which makes the book even superior to most of the large separate works on each of these various subjects, and what will commend it especially to those who have sometimes need of coming to a speedy conclusion on the points involved, it rigorously excludes from the text everything in the nature of case-statements and conflicting decisions. Where there is yet a doubt the Professor says so, but gives his opinion as to the preponderance of authority, adding throughout in the foot-notes, full and carefully corrected references to the reported cases. While therefore it is valuable to the lawyer as a work of reference, it is easy of comprehension to those not bred to the profession, and we can recommend it to merchants desirous of learning something of the legal rights and liabilities connected with every-day business, as a clear, safe, and reliable authority. In every respect, both of style, arrangement, and philosophical deduction, it is a valuable accession to legal literature, and cannot fail to command the highest reputation.

- 2.—*Scotia's Bards.* 8vo., pp. 558. New York: Robert Carter.

We have books containing selections from the poets of England, America, Germany, Italy and France, and now one of the brothers of the enterprising publisher of this volume has grouped in graceful form some of the choicest gems of Scotland's gifted bards. Commencing with Thompson, the author of the "Seasons," the editor introduces specimens of more than thirty Scotch poets, each prefaced with a concise and pertinent sketch of the author. Then follow a few pages of selections from "Songs for the Nursery," which Lord Jeffrey said contained more touches of genuine pathos—more happy poetical images—more sweet and engaging pictures of what is peculiar in depth, softness and thoughtfulness of Scotch domestic affection, than he had met with in anything like the same compass since the days of Burns. Near the close of the volume the editor has placed several pieces from anonymous writers, with a few from others of less celebrity than those contained in the body of the collection. The selections have been most copious from the minor poets, or those least known in this country. The selections throughout are judiciously made, and the editor has displayed good taste and a sound judgment in the entire arrangement of the work. It is printed on a large, handsome type, on the finest white paper, with some finely executed illustrations, and forms altogether a splendid and an attractive work.

- 3.—*The New Household Receipt Book;* containing Maxims, Directions and Specifics for Promoting Health, Comfort and Improvement in the Homes of the People. By SARAH JOSEPHA HALL, author of "Northwood," "Woman's Record," "The New Book of Cookery," &c. 12mo., pp. 392. New York: H. Long & Brother.

A most useful and really valuable book, containing a thousand things which every housekeeper should understand. Mrs. Hale is a woman of good taste, good sense and sound judgment, and while holding the pen of a ready writer, she is not deficient by any means in the accomplishments which go so far to render every home a comfortable and happy one. It is designed as a companion to her "Ladies' New Cook Book," and contains matter equally, if not more important and useful. It should be found in the hands of every housekeeper in the land, and we hope it will be.

- 4.—*A History of England.* By JOHN LINGARD, D. D. Vol. iv. 12mo., pp. 337. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

The present edition of this history, which we have before noticed, is to be completed in thirteen volumes. This volume commences with the campaign against the Scots, in 1327, and closes with the execution of Sawtre, in 1399. It includes the reign of Richard II. and part of Henry IV. and Edward III.

5.—*The British Poets.* 18mo. volumes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

In a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine* we noticed this superb collection of the British Poets, in course of publication by Little, Brown & Co., of Boston, and referred to the publication in this series of the poetical works of Gray, Goldsmith and Pope, the two former in one volume each and the latter in three volumes. We have since received from the same publishers, in continuation, uniform, and in the same beautiful and correct style, the poems of Prior, in two volumes, with a life by the Rev. John Mitford; the poems of Cowper, in three volumes; the poems of Butler, in two volumes, and Collins in one volume. The series, when completed, will form beyond all question the best and most complete edition of the British poets from Spencer to Moore, comprising some sixty volumes, and embracing, besides those already enumerated, the poetical works of Akenside, Beattie, Burns, Churchill, Dryden, Falconer, Milton, Parnell, Shakspeare, Shelley, Wyatt, Swift, Thompson, Kirke White, Young, &c. The enterprise is regarded, as well it may, with the highest respect. The volumes are in every particular, to say the least, equal to the celebrated Aldine edition, and the price at which they are offered—seventy-five cents per volume—so low as to place the volumes in the possession of almost every admirer of English poetry. Each work is accompanied with a comprehensive personal and critical memoir of the author, from writers of eminence. This publication will do away, in the minds of Americans of taste, with the necessity of importing the Aldine or any other English edition of these poets. We shall refer to this edition as it progresses, and we hope, as we have no doubt such will be the fact, that the publishers may be amply remunerated for their liberality in this noble enterprise.

6.—*Wild Scenes and Song-Birds.* By C. W. WEBBER, author of "Wild Scenes and Hunters," &c. With Twenty Illustrations, printed in Colors, from Drawings by Mrs. C. W. Webber and Alfred J. Miller. 8vo., pp. 349. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

The present volume, "Wild Scenes and Song-Birds," as the author correctly remarks, can fairly be considered but another step towards that assimilation between the formalities of mere technical natural history and the graces and uses of general literature, for which the author, in his proper character of hunter-naturalist (yet in his prime,) has labored for so many years. Discarding every thing of a purely technical character, he blends the useful in nature with the attractive, and discourses to the reader of Nature's wildest, gayest, gentlest themes. The fifteen plates of birds and flowers, printed in colors, by Mrs. Webber, the author's wife, are really beautiful—the best specimens of the art that we have ever seen. In these "she has," says the author, "simply endeavored to illustrate her own views of 'woman's rights,' in the earnest effort to achieve something undoubtedly in those departments of art which seem most congenial and proper to feminine ambition, viz.—bird and flower painting, with their cognate associations of the ornate, the graceful and the beautiful." Five plates in the volume are by Alfred J. Miller, of Baltimore. Four of these, in which Indians appear, are scenes in a camp of Delawares. Their elegance adds greatly to the attractive features of the work. The letterpress is ornamental and the illustrations spirited and brilliant—and altogether, we have a volume of more than ordinary taste, elegance and beauty.

7.—*The Works of Ben Jonson.* With a Biographical Memoir, by WILLIAM GIFFORD. A New Edition. 8vo., pp. 944. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

Ben Jonson, who was born ten years after Shakspeare, has been regarded as second only in dramatic literature to the great dramatic poet, although some are disposed to claim for the more Shaksperian genius of Bumont and Fletcher a higher rank. At all events, he founded a style of regular English comedy, massive, well compacted, and fitted to endure. His works altogether consist of about fifty dramatic pieces, but by far the greater part are masques and interludes. The volume before us is, we believe, the first complete edition of Jonson's works that has ever been published in this country. It forms a compact, handsomely-printed volume of nearly one thousand pages, embracing all his comedies, masques, epigrams, &c. The collection is prefaced with a biographical, personal, and critical memoir of the author's life, by William Gifford, the celebrated English review writer. This memoir is not merely a rehash or transcript of the vague accounts of former biographers, which each has taken in succession from his predecessors; but it is written with great ability, and evinces a critical acumen rarely met with in productions of its class. We are happy to learn that it is to be followed in uniform style by the works of Bumont and Fletcher.

- 8.—*History of the City of New York.* By DAVID VALENTINE, Clerk of the Common Council. 8vo., pp. 404. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

Mr. Valentine, who has for many years been connected with the government of New York in the capacity of City Clerk, enjoyed rare opportunities for collecting the materials for the present work. It has been his aim to trace the progress of the city of New York in such a manner as to illustrate to the reader of the present day its gradual development, from a wilderness, through the maturing stages of a hamlet, a village and a city. Commencing with the aboriginal inhabitants of the island and of the adjacent country, he brings the history down to the close of the first half of the last century. We are glad to notice that the author is engaged in preparing for press the subsequent history, which will probably bring it down to the present time. The task thus far has been performed with ability, industry and zeal, and we regard the present volume as a most valuable contribution to the historical literature of the State and the country.

- 9.—*A Month in England.* By HENRY T. TUCKERMAN. 12mo., pp. 243. New York: J. S. Redfield.

A month in England, in our day, with the iron road, affords more time for observation than a year some quarter of a century since. Novelty in books of travels in the mother-land is scarcely to be expected from the ordinary writer; and although, in the present instance, well-known scenes and places have been examined, a charm is thrown around them by the pen of one of the purest writers and best minds in America. It is just such a book as a Goldsmith or an Addison in our day, and visiting as strangers the same places, &c., would be likely to write. It has chapters on London authors, castles and Shakspeare, a day at Oxford, &c., written in that graceful, elegant style which characterizes every thing from the pen of the accomplished author.

- 10.—*Minnesota and its Resources.* To which are Appended Camp-Fire Sketches; or Notes of a Trip from St. Paul to Pembina and Selkirk Settlements, on the Red River of the North. By J. WESLEY BOND. 12mo., pp. 364. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This work is designed to answer the numerous inquiries constantly made relative to an interesting and important region of the great West. It gives, in answer to such inquiries, a general view of Minnesota as it existed prior to its organization as a territorial government, in 1849, and "as it is" at the present time. It probably contains more reliable information on the subject than any work yet published. As a guide to the emigrant, and the tourist in search of general information and pleasure, it will be found to contain much valuable information and interesting knowledge. The work is highly commended in letters, which are appended, from distinguished and authoritative sources. It is illustrated with a fine, and we presume accurate map of Minnesota.

- 11.—*The Mud Cabin; or, the Character and Tendency of the British Institutions, as Illustrated in their Effect upon Human Character and Destiny.* By WARREN ISHAM. 12mo., pp. 312. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This work is a sober and candid examination of the effects of the civil and political systems of England upon the mass of the people. The author spent many months in visiting the various classes and investigating their condition and the influences which oppressed them. There is nothing bitter or uncharitable in the work,—which can hardly fail to impress every reader with the sincerity of its author's views. It is deserving of an extensive circulation throughout this country, and will serve to dispel many illusory views of the value of British institutions.

- 12.—*The Lawyer's Story; or, The Orphan's Wrongs.* By a Member of the New York Bar. 12mo., pp. 372. New York: H. Long & Brothers.

A story of more than ordinary power. The orphan's wrongs are depicted in glowing language, and we can without much effort realize the effect that an orphan's wrongs, as depicted in this tale, must necessarily have upon a lively and vivid imagination.

- 13.—*Harry Coverdale's Courtship, and What Came of it.* By the Author of "Frank Fairleigh's Courtship," "Ferris Arundel," &c. 12mo., pp. 341. New York: H. Long & Brother.

"Frank Fairleigh," although less known from the obscurity of the writer, possessed in an eminent degree those elements of character and genius which gave so much *eclat* to the most favored works of Charles Dickens.

- 14.—*A Dictionary of Arts, Manufactures, and Mines: containing a Clever Exposition of their Principles and Practice.* By ANDREW URE, M. D. Illustrated with nearly Sixteen Hundred Engravings on Wood. Reprinted from the fourth London Edition, corrected and greatly improved. 2 vols., 8vo., pp. 1,118 and 990. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This edition of Ure's well-known Dictionary is one-third larger than any previous one issued in this country. It is brought down to the present time in its facts and statements, and contains, likewise, the results of the London Exhibition on all those points of which its contents treat. The leading objects of this unrivaled work are to instruct the manufacturer, metallurgist, and tradesman in the principles of their respective processes, so as to render them in reality masters of their business, and to emancipate them from a state of bondage to such as are too commonly the slaves of blind prejudice and vicious routine. Also, to afford to merchants, brokers, druggists, and others, characteristic descriptions of the commodities which pass through their hands; also, by exhibiting some of the finest developments of chemistry and physics, to lay open an excellent practical school to students of these kindred sciences; likewise, to teach capitalists who may be desirous of placing their funds in some productive bank of industry, to select judiciously among plausible claimants; also to give the general reader, intent chiefly on intellectual cultivation, a view of many of the noblest achievements of science, in effecting those grand transformations of matter to which England and the United States owe their paramount wealth, worth and power among the nations. The work is published in two handsome and substantially-bound volumes, which are a *fac simile* of the London edition, but free from many typographical errors which appear in the latter. Indeed, this edition of Ure's Dictionary is the most accurate and complete that has ever issued from the press.

- 15.—*The Conflict of Ages: or, The Great Debate on the Normal Relations of God and Man.* By EDWARD BEECHER, D. D. 12mo., pp. 552. Boston: Philips, Sampson & Co.

The conflict of which this author treats is, to use his own words, "a conflict of the heart," "the subject of the conflict is a normal renovation of man." It is his opinion that we need a system that shall give us the power intelligently to meet and logically to solve all the great religious and social problems which we are called on to encounter in the great work of renovating the world and re-organizing society. He endeavors also to point out, as the cause of the conflict, an element foreign to the system, creating confusion in doctrines and churches, and paralyzing the energies of Christianity. We must confess, with all respect for the talents, piety, and learning of the author, that he seems to have undertaken a work beyond his reach. With the peculiar views he holds of evil, justice, retribution, and human nature, the question is not solvable. It does not come within the compass of those which are in his mind first principles. The reader will be instructed in many prominent topics of theology, and the variations of opinions which have of late years existed in a portion of the New England clergy, and he cannot withhold his approval of the character and talents of the writer; but the conflict of ages will still continue, unaffected by the expositions of these pages.

- 16.—*Golden Dreams and Leaden Realities.* By RALPH ROSEN, with an Introductory Chapter by FRANCIS FOGIE, Sen., Esq. 12mo., pp. 344. New York: Putnam & Co.

A highly interesting and readable book, by, we presume, a returned Californian. It abounds in racy sketches, happily blending the "golden dreams" of life with its "leaden realities." Francis Fogie, judging from the vigor of his pen, is anything but an "old fogie;" and we predict for his book a wide circulation, and a host of gratified readers.

- 17.—*The Works of Joseph Addison.* Edited, with Critical and Explanatory Notes, by GEORGE WASHINGTON GREEN, in five volumes. 12mo., pp. 634. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

The second volume of this first complete American edition of the writings of Addison embraces his dialogues upon the Usefulness of Ancient Medals, accompanied with appropriate illustrations, Travels in Italy, &c., Essay on Virgil's Georgics, Discourse on Ancient and Modern Learning, Essay on the Christian Religion, and his private letters, which have never before been published with his works. The present edition, as we have before stated, contains the whole contents of Bishop Hurd's edition, besides the letters alluded to above, and Macaulay's Essay on his Life and Works.

- 18.—*Personal Sketches of His Own Times.* By SIR JONAH BARRINGTON, Judge of the High Court of Admiralty in Ireland, &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 540. New York: J. S. Redfield.

A most interesting medley of sketches of men and things in Ireland during the author's life. Commencing with his family connections, he goes on to speak of his early education, choice of a profession, and adoption of the law. But the larger portion of the book treats of "the times" of Irish beauties, Irish inns, singular customs in the Irish parliament, dueling, law of libel, and a hundred other subjects of equal interest. The anecdotes of Irish judges, lawyers, and Irish characters in general, who figured in his time, are brought prominently before the reader. His political character will be inferred from the statement, that he regarded radical reform, in reality, proximate revolution; universal suffrage, as inextinguishable uproar; and annual parliaments, nothing less than periodical bloodshed! On the whole, it is an interesting work, and one that will repay the student of Irish character and history for the perusal.

- 19.—*Moral Aspects of City Life.* By REV. E. H. CHAPIN. New York: Henry Lyon.

New York may well be proud of such a preacher as this. The eight lectures—Moral Significance of the City, World of Traffic, Dominion of Fashion, Circle of Amusement, Three Vices, Three Social Forces, Lower Depths, Society and the Individual—take hold of the blessings and perils of city life with a giant's grasp, yet with an artist's fineness of touch. Seldom is an eloquent speaker so eloquent upon the printed page; almost never so free from verbiage, from exaggeration, from cant of profession, or place, or party, or creed. This born pulpit-orator has a popularity founded upon his shrewd common sense, his glowing philanthropy, his earnest hope, his enlarged charity, his progressive spirit. Of all the printed utterances Mr. C. has made, these lectures will stand at the head.

- 20.—*Outlines of Comparative Philology: With a Sketch of the Languages of Europe, arranged upon Philosophical Principles, and a brief History of the Art of Writing.* By M. SCHELE DE VERE, of the University of Virginia. 12mo., pp. 434. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

This work is divided into three parts, commencing with an inquiry into the nature of language, showing the connection between thoughts and words, with the various theories of the unity of language. The second part is devoted to the languages of Europe, and the third and last to a history of writing among all nations. Although the author does not pretend to lay before the reader novel or original views, he has succeeded in stating briefly and in a popular manner, with a view to give suggestive rather than complete information, what comparative philology is, and what it has done. The arrangement of the subject discussed is admirable, and its treatment clear and comprehensive. We know of no work of its size embodying so much information in a form so desirable, or so well adapted to impart to the student correct information in the important science of philology.

- 21.—*Up the River.* By F. W. SHELTON, author of "Rector of St. Bardolph's" and "Salandar the Dragon." With illustrations from original designs. 12mo., pp. 335. New York: Charles Scribner.

These papers originally graced the *Knickerbocker Magazine*, and are worthy of being collected and published in a permanent and beautiful form. They are, to use the words of a cotemporary, "inspired and infused with the sweet influences of the garden, the field and the grove. Their spirit is of the green earth and the blue sky. Their scenes, and feelings, and thoughts all belong to the country; and all are sure to touch the heart and finally linger in the memory. The tendency of such reading is to cheer, elevate and purify, and the more we have of it, in these artificial days, the better."

- 22.—*The Old Doctor: or, Stray Leaves from My Journal.* Being most Interesting Reminiscences of a Retired Physician. 12mo., pp. 384. New York: H. Long & Brother.

The sketches of character, drawn with the hand of a master, in this volume, are faithfully and gracefully portrayed, and the work is replete with interest and incident. Each sketch—The Old Doctor's Study, My Surprise on finding the Wine Bottle half empty, Edmond Marsden, Keeping Bachelor's Hall, The Death of the Poor Artist—points a separate moral, as well as forms a tale.

- 23.—*Justo Ucondono, Prince of Japan.* By PHILALETHERS. 12mo., pp. 343. Baltimore: John Murphy.

A Catholic story, founded on fact. Justo Ucondono, Prince of Japan, marries Rosalia, a Christian virgin. The various systems of religion are presented to the prince, and Christianity in its every shade and variety. The Bible alone and the teaching of the Catholic Church are brought forward and carefully balanced, and not dismissed until the former is found wanting. Francis Xavier, representing the cause of authority, pleads powerfully and convincingly for the great corporation. He convinces the mind and affects the heart of Prince Justo, who decides in favor of authority and of a teaching church. The arguments are generally advanced in the form of discourses; and there is, of course, in the thoughts and language much of the amplification which in a written treatise would be regarded as defects.

- 24.—*Lectures to Young Men.* By WILLIAM G. ELIOT, Jr., Pastor of the Church of the Messiah, St. Louis. 18mo., pp. 190. Boston: Crosby, Nichols & Co.

We noticed in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine* a volume of similar size and character, addressed to young women, in terms of commendation. The present volume embraces six lectures; the introductory lecture, which is a general appeal to young men as a distinct class in the community and as individuals, is eloquent and perusable. The five which follow are devoted to Self-education, Leisure-time, Transgression, the Ways of Wisdom, and Religion. They are well written, and contain many valuable and useful suggestions, which we can cordially commend to the young men of all our large commercial cities.

- 25.—*The Convent and the Manse.* By HYLIA. 12mo., pp. 242. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

A religious novel, designed, as the writer states, to show the contrast between the pure and peaceable religion of Christ and that system which is its dangerous counterfeit, and to "bespeak for the humble, deluded stranger such kindly Christian treatment as may win him from darkness to light." It is, as will be inferred from the title, a Protestant story, written in a sincere and kindly spirit.

- 26.—*Old England and New England: in a Series of Views taken on the Spot.* By ALFRED BUNN, author of the "Stage before and behind the Curtain." Two volumes of the London edition complete in one. 12mo., paper covers, pp. 315. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

Another book about America by an Englishman, much in the vein à la Trollope, which will not prevent its being eagerly sought after and read by sensitive Americans.

- 27.—*The Captive: a Novel.* By LOUIS FERDINAND SCHMANOWSKY, author of the "Fall of Warsaw," "Henry Alfred," &c. Philadelphia: Published for the author, by A. Hart.

- 28.—*The Electro-Magnetic Telegraph.* With an Historical Account of its Rise, Progress, and Present Condition. Also, Practical Suggestions in regard to Insulation, and Protection from the effects of Lightning. Together with an Appendix, containing several important Telegraphic Decisions and Laws. By LAURENCE TURNBULL, M. D., Lecturer on Chemistry at the Franklin Institute of the State of Pennsylvania. 8vo., pp. 264. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

The character and design of this work is succinctly stated in the title-page, as quoted above. The present is a second edition, which has been revised, enlarged, and otherwise improved. Professor Turnbull has availed himself of all the published information—historical, scientific, and practical—having any bearing on the telegraph, and presented it in a convenient and comprehensive form. In the appendix to this edition are given several new and important telegraphic decisions, the telegraphic laws of several States, with the liability of telegraph companies for errors in dispatches, &c.

THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY

ASTOR LENOX TILDEN FOUNDATION

500 N. 5TH ST. NEW YORK, N. Y.

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911

1911



E. B. Bigelow.
"